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Volume I, Number 1

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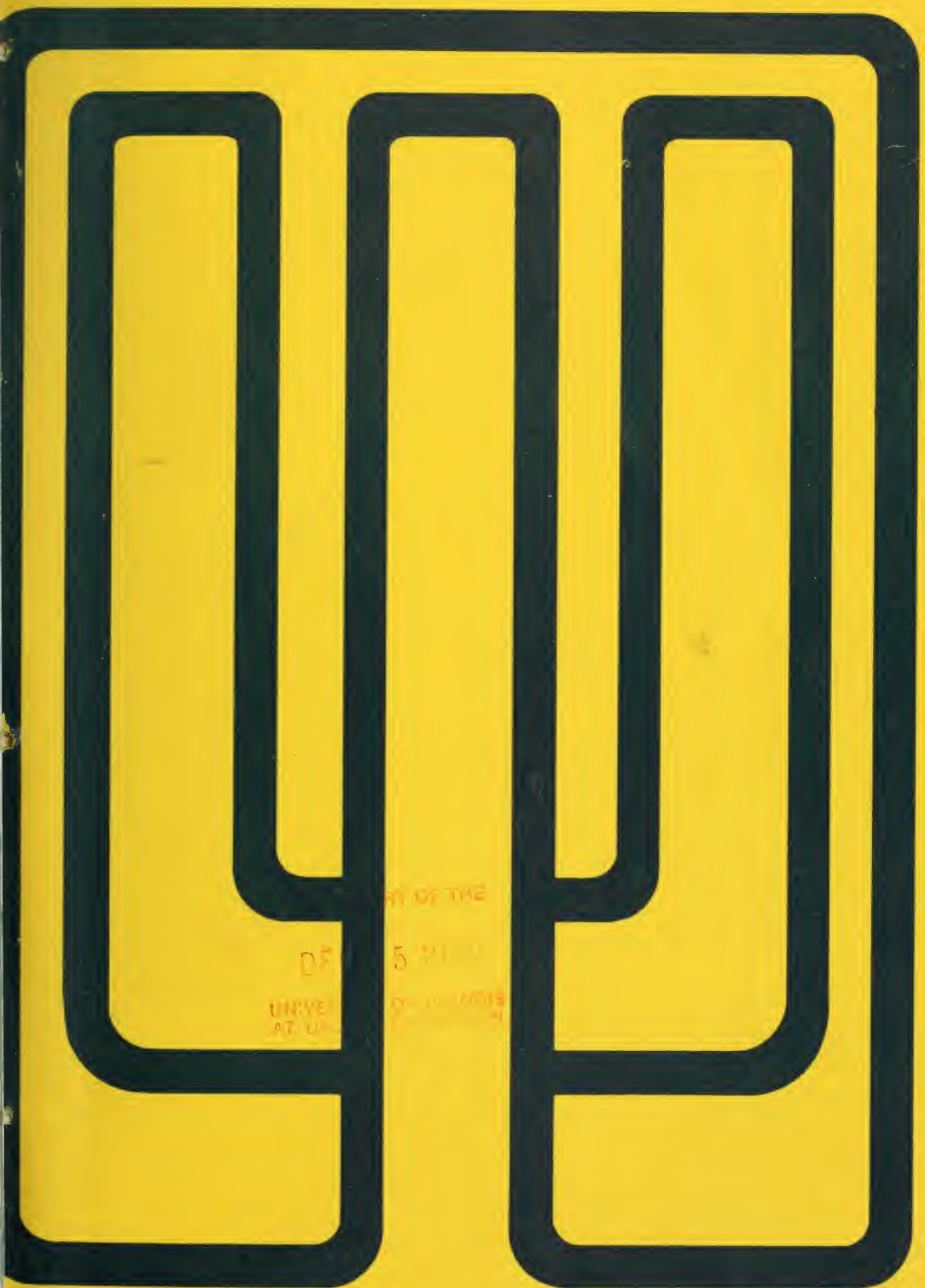
Summer, 1972

THE ILLINOIS EDUCATION REVIEW



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A PUBLICATION

OF THE

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN
J. MYRON ATKIN, DEAN

and

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
ALUMNI ASSOCIATION
JOSEPH DEATON, PRESIDENT

and

THE OFFICE FOR PROFESSIONAL
SERVICES IN EDUCATION
THOMAS L. McGREAL, DIRECTOR

The Illinois Education Review is published periodically by the College of Education Alumni Association of the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Articles for consideration should be sent to:

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Thomas L. McGreal, Editor
J. Terry Gates, Associate Editor
E. Sue Buchanan, Editorial Assistant

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A FIRST EDITION

In light of changing educational priorities within the Nation, the State, and within our own College of Education, it was becoming more and more apparent that there was a need for our College to take itself out of the confines of our campus and to actively extend its usefulness and its visability to educational practitioners at all levels. Quite independently, while discussions were taking place as to ways our College could expand its service activities and increase its visability, the College of Education Alumni Association Board of Directors were trying to develop ways that would allow the College of Education to take advantage of the Association's resources while still providing service to its active membership. As anyone who operates in bureaucratic organizations knows, the fact that two related discussions are taking place in the same building does not necessarily guarantee that they will be aware of each other and that they will begin to cooperatively work toward solving mutual concerns. In this case, however, the two groups did get together and found that they might be able to be of help to each other. The College on the one hand had an interest in opening up communication links with a variety of people, while on the other hand the alumni group had a certain amount of fiscal resources, a group of active members who represented a microcosm of educational personnel, and an interest in serving the College. One outcome of the meeting of these joint interest groups was the decision to publish a journal whose major purposes would be to present positions on issues of policy and practice that would be useful and readable to a wide range of educational practitioners and to provide informational pieces on contemporary topics that have relevance to educators at all levels. Thus it was that *The Illinois Education Review* came into being.

Consequently, *The Review* is a joint venture between the College of Education Alumni Association and the College of Education as represented by The Office for Professional Services in Education. As such, these two groups provide the primary financial support for *The Review*. The initial issues will be sent to all active members of the College of Education alumni group and will be considered as an additional benefit to their membership. At this time, plans for general subscriptions are being made, but most likely will not be acted upon until 1974.

In trying to determine the format for *The Review* that would best serve its purposes, the editors recognized that many issues in

education arise from differences in the theoretical bases from which educational planners operate, and that these issues must be discussed in the realm of theory rather than in policy or practice. But there are already in existence many excellent journals for the disputation of theoretical positions, and it would have been redundant to add another journal to that distinguished body of literature. There are also publications in every educational field which carry articles of interest on a wide range of topics within the educational specialty which defines the subject matter of the journal. Seldom, however, do professionals in one specialty have the opportunity to read of the concerns of another specialty with understanding, unless the reader is well acquainted with the special vocabulary and traditions of the other field.

To us, there seemed to be a lack of ongoing literature in the middle ground between theory and practice, and between thinking professionals in one field of education and those of another. *The Illinois Education Review* intends to provide a vehicle for this largely neglected forum. Although this is our first edition, we have extremely high hopes for *The Review* and in our most optimistic moments see *The Review* benefiting the profession in several important ways:

A. Where issues suggest interdisciplinary resolutions, a broader base of people who could work on the problem would be reached than by commonly used means.

B. Educational movements, which are criticized largely either in the popular press or in the theoretical literature could receive more analytical attention from those who are in the planning stage and at the practicing state within the movements.

C. It could have some effect in heading off movements which are destined to failure because of the relative inaccessibility of intelligent criticism of the particular means-end relationships early enough in the movements' careers to prevent them from being carried to unproductive and counterproductive conclusions.

In the best sense of what we are trying to accomplish with this publication, we would invite manuscripts from *all* our readers. At the same time, we would also hope for the reactions of our readers

to the contents of any given issue of *The Review*. Starting with our second issue, we would hope to be able to run a series of responses, rebuttals, supporting statements, etc. that are concerned with items published in *The Review.* It is in this way, that the ideals which we hold for the publication can be best met. Manuscripts which meet the following criteria are those most likely to be considered for publication:

A. The Manuscript is in good form for publication (See MLA style manual).

B. The issue discussed is and would be understandable to a professional outside of the writer's special field.

C. The author analyzes and/or criticizes an educational policy or practice and proposes a resolution of the issue with which he deals.

D. An issue that is thought by the editors to be of some importance to a reasonably broad segment of the profession.

The articles contained in this first issue, in our opinion, establish an excellent framework from which our purposes and objectives for this publication can be met. All of the pieces have implications for a variety of educational organizations and are written in such a way that they can be practically assimilated by people from a variety of backgrounds and training. We hope you find this first edition as exciting and interesting to read as we found it exciting and interesting to put together. We hope we can count on your support.

T. L. McGreal and J. T. Gates

THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR AND THE PURPOSE OF EDUCATION

George P. Young

This article is adapted from the speech given at the College of Education Alumni Association's annual fall banquet meeting in October, 1971. Dr. Young was selected as the recipient of the 1971 distinguished alumnus award, presented annually by the Alumni Association. In this article Dr. Young clearly lays out many of the problems facing the contemporary school administrator, especially the urban school administrator. He makes a plea for the kind of people and the kind of training these people need to be able to effectively administer the complex school systems of today. Dr. Young is currently the Superintendent of the St. Paul, Minnesota public school system.

A great and good friend of the College of Education Alumni Association passed away just last week. Much more than a great and good friend of the Association, he was the force which brought about the Association.

At the time he died, Al Grace was in every sense of the word a great elder statesman in education. But I know from personal experience with him that he managed to transcend elder statesmanship. He continued his vigorous activity as a worker and practitioner, speaking, writing, and teaching 'till the end.

He taught me. This past summer I spent a long weekend with Al and Jeanette at their home in Andover. Al and I talked for hours during those days about public schools, their purposes and functions, and about the administration of public schools. He and I had agreed to co-author a book on public school administration --- we were continuing our exploration of our ideas and experiences which had been going on through correspondence for some years. Better said, I was exploring Al Grace's ideas and experiences.

This man was contemporary with the needs of the 1970's as long ago as 1944 when as Commissioner of Education for Connecticut he reported as follows to the State Board of Education:

> No one desires a return to the Dark Ages in America, when children were exploited and when the health and welfare of future generations was impaired by unscrupulous opportunists. On the

> other hand, it is evident that with the advancing mechanization of production processes, we have been creating a social system in which job scarcity, except in time of war, has become increasingly prevalent . . . . . It is obvious, however, that if we continue to raise youth through the age of eighteen without benefit of the education that comes from work, we shall have denied them a most important part of their training and education.

Al was saying that almost 30 years ago. Just two weeks ago today I listened to the U.S. Commissioner, Sid Marland, tell a group of large city superintendents that his strong support for programs which provide work experience for all students before high school graduation could be his greatest contribution to education.

Years after his 1944 report, this time in 1967, Al reported on the preparation of school administrators:

> The need for a daring departure from the present policy and practice designed for the education of administrators in the public school system has long been evident. Some years ago I set forth my point of view and a suggested policy and program on the matter. Several valiant efforts have since been made to spell our daring departures.
>
> However, the firm hand of the traditionalist, the careful protection of vested interests, meticulous adherence to unproductive state regulations governing admission to the profession, and other impediments to educational progress have successfully maintained the status quo.

Al felt keenly the need for change, and he participated in bringing about change continuing his valiant efforts through all the time he had on earth. He looked into the future and wrote about education in the 21st century. He saw clearly that the noble goals for the public schools of the country must be achieved, and quickly, if freedom is to have any chance to survive. He wrote just this past May:

> It is essential . . . that the purposes of education be translated into action, that whatever happens under the jurisdiction of the education system be reflected in the emerging product. Individuals must be better for having had the advantage of school and college. Society, too, must be better because educated men compose it.

This evening I will talk about two closely related problems, each one as a major problem, facing the public school system in

the United States. One has to do with the purposes of the public school system in a free society, and the other has to do with the school administrator charged with the responsibility to know the purposes and to make certain they are accomplished.

Looking back on my experiences at the University of Illinois as a student, the two most useful were the work in philosophical foundations and the work as an assistant with the Office of Field Services. The first awakened me to institutional purpose, and helped me develop a basis for decision making. That basis has become a set of beliefs about the purposes for public schools in a free society against which I can measure the validity of decisions which affect the schools.

The set of experiences with the Office of Field Services provided a firm understanding, through direct participation, of the practical politics of administering school districts. I traveled to and worked in school districts throughout the state of Illinois observing practicing school administrators, boards of education, students' groups, parent and citizen groups dealing with live problems, the resolution of which affected people in a real and immediate way. The University thus provided me its own kind of head start program for school administration.

Because of our belief that the success of a democracy is dependent upon the formation of the broadest possible base of educated, enlightened people, we look to the public school system to provide the opportunity of education for all.

Our almost miraculous success in providing at least spaces in school buildings for almost all children and youth is without parallel. It is also very recent. Only within the last few generations has it been true that practically everyone gets to school. Not too long ago only the affluent, the bright, the physically able, and the well adjusted got to school. Now everyone gets there from the most bright to the least, from the strongest to the weakest, from the most ambitious, to the least ambitious, from the most likely to succeed to the least likely. And our success has brought us face to face with a monumental problem. That problem lies at the very heart of the institution and its grandest purpose - - - to provide a base of enlightened people which stretches across the entire population without discrimination, a base of people who know through their years of experience in the public schools that it *is* possible to organize systems within which the individual does have alternatives, does have options, does have a large measure of indepen-

dence, and does have the chance to exercise authority and responsibility even from his youngest years in school.

The problem is to provide for the growth and maturity of the individual in the face of the masses of children and youth in the schools and in the face of the great diversity which those masses bring with them. That is exactly the same problem facing the entire country and it may be true that the best place to find the solution of the problem is in the public school system. The public school population mirrors the population of the entire country. All the diversity of the entire population resides in the schools. If it is possible to obtain the kinds of flexibility of organization which permit the schools to continue to serve the masses, which it must do, while serving the individual, then there is hope for the country that the American revolution may yet one day be completed.

The school administrator is charged with the responsibility of knowing and achieving the purposes of the schools. That charge has always been the same, I suspect, but great changes have taken place over the past twenty years or so. A generation ago the position of school administrator was a safe berth. Men often held life-tenure in their jobs, conflicts appeared to be few, the administrator's wisdom was seldom challenged. If education and the way the schools were administered were at the core of a democratic system of government, few appeared to realize it - - and fewer still grasped the implications for social change inherent in the schools.

Now school administrators are in the eye of the storm as the public schools become more and more the focal point for conflict in society. The grandfatherly school man, dispensing candy to good children, has been replaced by the administrator-manager who combines the qualities of an organizer, a planner, a negotiator, and a politician. Today's effective school administrator is a man who leads his district, not so much by his Rotary Club speeches, as by the hundreds of day-to-day decisions which flow from his desk. The way in which the administrator makes those decisions determines whether his administration has any chance for improving the quality of the schools, or whether it will settle back into another of the holding actions which so plagued education in the past, and which all too often continue to plague education.

While every school district has unique problems, a common thread runs through most of the difficult situations faced daily by urban school administrators. Every administrator, for example,

must cope with angry groups demanding changes on an impossible timetable. Every administrator ponders how to direct and inspire his staff, how to release the leadership skills he knows are there - - - and every one agonizes over staff reassignments and dismissals.

The administrator must possess ways for handling confrontations with minority groups, with angry parents, with boards of education. Each one must be prepared to struggle and win struggles with groups pledged to destroy the public school system. The administrator for today needs to know how to vitalize school populations which express hostility or apathy towards education. He needs to know how to defuse the angry groups, he needs tested techniques for teacher negotiations, rules for communicating with the press, ideas on how to marshal the community behind efforts to improve the quality of education, and a memory for detail. The urban school administrator faces the problem of the steady deterioration of the quality of life in the cities, the downward trend of school achievement in city schools, the diminishing tax base, racial antagonisms, a century and more of neglect of minority groups, segregated housing patterns, the diversion of national resources, a taxpayers revolt of growing proportions, and a mood of despair, frustration and hostility that pervades many among this generation of students.

It is the fate, but the challenge as well, of the public schools to be the fragile institution where all these problems come together in an explosive mix. School administrators are not in ivory towers but on the street in the middle of a revolution which, more often than many know or like to believe, is a shooting war. Rightly or wrongly, the schools have become trapped in the tensions between those who would return to the values and life styles of the past, and those who seek to create new patterns and goals. Public education and the school administrators who lead public education must respond to these tensions in the only way possible for us, by testing the belief that people can organize in large groups to meet the differing needs of each individual.

The superintendent of a medium-sized district in the midwest received an emergency call from one of the high school principals. A full scale riot had broken out at the school, the principal reported. Squad cars were on the way (this was a city where the police responded to calls for help - - - in some other cities calls from schools, or at least certain schools, are ignored or answered hours after the calls). Fighting was going on in the halls, a teacher had been injured and an ambulance had been called.

The superintendent hung up the phone and immediately headed for the school. When he arrived, he encountered a group of youth standing just inside the main entrance of the school. The door had been locked and the youth refused to open the door.

"Let me in," he demanded.

"Who are you?" they responded.

"I am the superintendent of schools," he replied. As the superintendent later told me, "The youth just laughed at me and it was then that I understood the power of the superintendent." Not until the police arrived and negotiations had been conducted did the superintendent gain entry into one of his own high schools.

The power of the administrator to rule by edict and proclamation is gone. The administrator can no longer order the youth to open the door, or the citizens to support plans for change, or the teachers to forgo salary increases, or the board of education to approve his recommendations.

The power of the administrator lies in his powers of persuasion. He must be able to convince citizens to face the educational problems which beset the community and to apply those resources which will be necessary for their correction.

Few communities are eager to honestly assess their instructional deficiencies. In some cases it is decades of neglect of school buildings, in others it is a declining rate of pupil achievement. In almost every community there is a pattern of some kind of discrimination against minority groups and neglect of those segments of the community which lack political sophistication to apply pressure for reform.

The school administrator must illuminate these problems in ways which will inspire community leaders to actively seek remedies and solutions. Unless he has the participation of his community in the search for solutions to instructional problems, and unless he has their support for the remedies eventually chosen, he can expect to be an ineffectual or a short-term administrator.

The administrator is less and less the man who issues orders and is more and more the individual who organizes staff and citizens for participation in decision making. He is more and more the individual who leads his community through short courses in school problems and then attempts to develop consensus on what the solutions might be.

His task is complicated by the fact that power in a community is scattered. Every group seems to have a piece of it and a firm opinion as to how it should be used. How to organize so that the

opinions of all of these groups can be heard and funnelled into the planning and decision making process is one of the most complicated tasks of the school administrator. But it is one he had better be at before he finds himself with a barred-door crisis. The superintendent shut out of his own high school by student militants was a little late in responding to the opinions of one significant power group.

The time to establish the relationship with the students was long before he was locked out. If he had nothing to fall back on in the crisis but the authority of his office, he had very little leverage. That superintendent learned the hard way that the power of the administrator lies, not so much in his title, as in his ability to marshal the power groups of the community to grapple with the problems of the schools.

A mother and father took their little five-year-old daughter to her first big wedding. She sat wide-eyed throughout the ceremony, and observed everything that went on during the reception. On the way home her parents asked her how she had liked it. She responded by asking, "What does fornication mean?"

The parents were stunned. They acted as most upright, uptight parents would - - - they ignored the question. But that night the little girl was back at it. Finally the parents asked her, "Where did you ever hear that word?" She said she had heard their neighbor Mr. Brown say it at the wedding reception while he filled a glass at the punch bowl. "Punch," Mr. Brown said, "you'd think for an occasion like this they'd have champagne."

One can never be certain that the words he says are heard in the ways he expects. If, however, you have thought that I have described some of the talents, skills, and knowledge prospective school administrators should attempt to acquire before they try it themselves, you are correct. If you think I meant to describe some of the things administrator training programs should include, again you are correct. The stakes are much too high to gamble on success, we must move with knowledge and skill and vigor toward success in achieving the purposes of the public schools - - - and it is the knowledge and skill and vigor of the school administrator which is key to that.

As Dean Grace wrote, "Individuals must be better for having had the advantage of school and college. Society, too, must be better because educated men compose it."

CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION: NEED, SCOPE, AND SETTING

Alan B. Knox

Perhaps no other movement within education is gaining more attention than is the move toward expanded programs of continuing professional education. In this statement, Professor Knox identifies the major areas in need of definition as well as provides an overall view of the continuing education movement as it will and can affect us all. This is a position paper that will give educators in the public schools, the junior colleges, in colleges, and at state and national levels a set of background material from which continuing education programs can be built. Dr. Knox is a Professor of Education at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign and is a recognized authority in the field of Continuing Education.

Nearly every professional group in this country has repeatedly committed itself to continuing education for its members. Historically life-long learning has been part of the definition of a profession, and the accelerating rate of social change makes it even more crucial today.

Continuing education in various professional fields contains many similarities. Every professional field depends upon a body of complex knowledge. The rudiments of this knowledge are typically acquired through formal education including at least four years of university study. The professional worker is perceived as benefiting a substantial number of people in major ways. The work of professionals is supported by persons in a variety of related professional, paraprofessional and subprofessional roles who receive substantive and administrative leadership from the professional.

Recognition of need for continuing professional education is partly a function of awareness of opportunities for it. When there are no available continuing education programs concerning an area of practice, many professionals will feel complacent about their competence in that area. However, when they learn that relevant programs are offered, the programs help to define a desirable standard of performance against which to evaluate professional

competence. Frequently this results in the replacement of complacency with recognition of need for continuing professional education.

The unique characteristics of each professional field are reflected in the type of continuing professional education that is developed——the subject matter that is studied, the type of program planning that occurs, the types of people who plan and conduct continuing education programs, and the arrangements that are made to provide the programs. Some fields such as medicine, architecture, and pharmacy are greatly influenced by scientific and technological developments. Helping professions such as education, social work, and counseling must react to the changing expectations of clients. Some professions such as certain engineering specialties are greatly affected by governmental policy decisions (e.g., the building of interstate highways through urban areas, shifts in national aerospace priorities). An analysis of continuing professional education should consider these differences as well as the similarities.

The purpose of this statement is to explore the scope of continuing professional education, the settings in which it occurs, the process by which it is planned and conducted, the various groups that contribute to programs, and the types of leadership that a major university should provide. The university is in a unique position to make a major contribution to continuing professional education because its resources include both the specialized knowledge in a professional field and the breadth of perspective from related fields. However, as recent reports by HEW and several major foundations have stated, most universities give too little attention to continuing education.

Scope of Continuing Professional Education

Most people know of only a few instances of continuing professional education, in their own fields. The following examples indicate the scope of existing activity.

An elementary school teacher meets one afternoon a week for eight months, with ten other teachers. As members of a curriculum study team, they review a subject matter area, evaluate materials and student performance, and consider their own instructional approaches. A tangible outcome may be a curriculum guide and some book selections. The more important outcome is their increased competence reflected in greater instructional effective-

ness. The teachers do much of their work on school time; they receive some encouragement and assistance from a supervisor or curriculum specialist in the school system and some materials and consultation from a professor at a nearby university.

An attorney spends one evening a week and occasional free time pursuing a home study course on recent developments in state tax law. The course is short, practical, and up-to-date. It includes copies of forms and guides along with background information on the legal developments. The course was prepared by the continuing legal education unit of the state bar association, with the cooperation of the law school and the continuing education division at the state university.

The dean of a community college devotes a long weekend to a residential seminar for community college administrators in his state. The university-sponsored seminar is based on a computer simulation in which the participants can make as many major decisions about resource allocation and improvement of instruction in five hours as they normally would make in five years, and then receive feedback about the results of their decisions. In the seminar sessions the participants discuss the various strategies used and the results obtained.

A physician with a rural practice many miles from any major medical center takes a case of electronic equipment to the house of a patient who is seriously ill. After a preliminary examination of the patient, the physician telephones a medical center. The phone is placed into an electronic device, and information about the patient's condition is transmitted over the telephone line for analysis by a computer at the medical center. A professor then reports via telephone the results of the computer analysis, along with his own conclusions. The immediate result is the expert consultation that assists the local physician in diagnosis and remediation. Longterm benefit occurs as the professor provides related information that enables the local physician to become a more competent diagnostician.

An unemployed, middle-aged engineer whose specialization is in over-supply, participates full-time for eight months in an intensive educational program designed to enable him to develop another specialty. The program, including some career counseling and financial support, is supported by employers, engineering societies, and universities.

The foregoing provides the basis for a definition of continuing professional education. *It is the continuing education of adults*

employed in occupations usually classified as professional or in occupations advanced in the process of becoming professionalized.

Typically, entry to these occupations occurs after at least four years of college and usually a specialized program of graduate study. Professional occupations involve both action and knowledge. The action may be teaching college students, ministering to a congregation, giving legal advice, or helping patients to get well. Continuing professional education focuses on helping persons increase their competence in performing these acts. As a result, continuing professional education is often closely connected with professional practice. Professionals need to extend and change the knowledge acquired preparatory to entering their professions. In most professions, far more is learned after assuming the occupation than was learned before. Some of this post-entry learning is incidental; a major part, however, is systematic and deliberate. The range of continuing education objectives held by professionals, and their restrictions due to professional responsibilities, demand varied and flexible ways to increase competence. In some instances this may require consultation with a specialist for less than an hour. In other instances it may mean intensive study for several months.

Continuing professional education is planned and conducted by various sponsors, primarily universities, professional associations, and employers. A given program may be successfully conducted by any one or a combination of sponsors. One result of this is a great diversity of programs that are relevant to any one person. Many people concerned with continuing education have urged that offerings be systematized. It is likely, however, that the basic coherence will be achieved by the individual professional as he is self-directed in developing his own plan of continuing education. To this end, universities or some other agency should arrange for informal and convenient access to many of the programs of continuing professional education regardless of sponsor.

Settings for Continuing Education

Most continuing professional education occurs in one of three settings: the individual, the temporary group, or the organization. In an individual setting, the participant studies on his own or with guidance, but without interaction with other participants. In a temporary group setting, the participant meets with other professionals with whom he does not ordinarily interact. In an organizational setting, the participant learns with some of the same people

with whom he interacts in his occupational setting. Each of these three settings for continuing education has both advantages and disadvantages for professionals who want to increase their competence.

When professionals continue their education in the individual setting, they assume the primary responsibility for improvement. There are no other participants from whom to learn and with whom to enjoy the experience. The participant may learn something very much on his own (such as the physician who listens to a cassette tape recording of a lecture while he drives between house calls, or the accountant who studies a series of technical reports on legislation that relates to his practice) or he may receive some guidance from a mentor. The teacher may be a professor from a school of social work who responds to lessons written by a social worker enrolled in a correspondence course. The mentor might also be a professor of physics who prepares a computer-based course on a system such as PLATO, in which an engineer enrolls. The major advantage of the individual setting is flexibility; the participant can study at his own pace at times he chooses. The major disadvantage is the lack of stimulation from other participants.

Examples of programs that use the temporary group setting include post-graduate courses sponsored by professional schools and conferences sponsored by professional associations. The major advantage of these types of programs is the stimulation that can result when professionals with different backgrounds meet to discuss ideas presented by resource persons. The major disadvantage is the tendency for such programs to be somewhat removed from the immediate concerns of any one participant.

The organizational setting is more effective for some types of continuing education. This setting involves the network of persons who perform interdependent occupational roles. Their shared experience provides the basis for both program planning and utilization of that which is learned. For example, the management team of a large bank might spend several days analyzing the findings from operations research at their bank and several similar banks. An economist might serve as a resource person to help the participants relate their experience and findings to broader generalizations from the banking field. Or, the professors of English and of mathematics in a community college might meet periodically with English and mathematics teachers of area high schools to develop a more coherent curriculum for the students who

matriculate at the community college. The major disadvantage is a tendency to consider the more acceptable ideas and to avoid those that are more controversial.

Planning and Conducting Continuing Education

Effective programs of continuing professional education typically include attention to six elements——needs, objectives, plans, activities, evaluation, and benefits.

1) Needs of professionals for continuing education are usefully appraised by describing the gaps between four categories of information. The *present* competencies of potential participants in continuing education can be described by *themselves* and by *others*. If, for example, the potential participants are nurses, the others might be physicians, patients, hospital supervisors, and professors of nursing. The *desired* competencies can also be described by potential *participants* and by *others*. The resulting comparisons can identify the aspect of the professional's role for which the gap is largest and most important. Where a large disparity is perceived by others but not by the professionals themselves, the continuing education program might focus on an analysis of the discrepancy of views.

2) Many more continuing education objectives are typically identified than can practically be pursued. The results of need appraisal, even if they are only estimates by informed observers, should be a major basis for assigning high priority to some objectives. People such as subject matter specialists and representatives of sponsors can also help to set priorities. However, the professional himself should lead in setting objectives. Ways of doing this vary from profession to profession and even between specialties within a professional field. For instance, in some specialties, physicians practice in isolation from their peers and so tend to lack a reference group for comparison of their own practices against professional norms. In recent years, efforts have been made to clarify standards of excellence by use of a college of peers whose outstanding performance sets standards. A practitioner can then compare his own competence and performance against these standards to identify the needs to be met by continuing education. In some areas, for example, a sufficient range of continuing legal education programs exists so that lawyers can choose to participate in those they consider to be of highest priority. Program priorities are thus greatly influenced by the market place. Another approach is illustrated by a representative committee of nurses

which works with associations and universities to review and revise priorities for continuing education. In general, professionals should participate in the process of identifying needs, setting priorities for programs to be developed, and choosing programs in which they will participate.

3) The high educational level of professional workers should enable them to take an even more active part in the selection and organization of learning activities than is the case for most of adult education. Greater self-direction in continuing education is predicated upon thoughtful professional action. The professional who analyzes the importance of his actions and the bases for his effectiveness is better able to recognize the relevance of continuing education activities. Such analysis is greatly aided by procedures for performance review. With the resulting understanding of his performance, the professional worker can better identify and use relevant knowledge resources. To plan well he must know about the existing opportunities, including technical reports, books, films, study guides, arrangements for consultation, courses, workshops, and demonstration projects that can be observed.

4) The intent of most continuing professional education programs is the improvement of professional practice. Few program planners are satisfied with just providing background information. Most are interested in linkage between knowledge and action. A continuing professional education program is more likely to have an impact on the field if the program includes an opportunity for the participants to practice desired behaviors. For instance, engineers are more likely to use a new piece of testing equipment if they have a chance to use it for a trial period than if they only read a description of it. Social workers are more likely to develop greater empathy for their clients if they engage in sensitivity training sessions than if they only hear a lecture on the topic. Some of the most effective programs of continuing professional education have combined the analysis of action problems with the mastery of related knowledge, and the development of strategies by which to link knowledge resources and problem solving in action situations.

5) The informal, fragmented, and transitory character of most of continuing professional education places a premium on flexible and informal arrangements for continuous program evaluation. Evaluation consists of judging program effectiveness based on evidence, in a way that contributes to program improvement. Evaluation may focus not only on the outcomes of the program but also

on its inputs such as participants, materials, and resource persons, along with the process by which they interact to produce the outcomes. Various people make such evaluative judgments; at the very least, judgments are made by participants, planners, and resource persons. Major tasks in conducting programs of continuing professional education are to provide procedures to improve the evidence upon which judgments are made and to obtain judgments useful for program improvement.

6) The benefits of continuing professional education accrue both to the participants and to the organizations with which they are associated. In program development, it is important to consider both types of benefits. Organizational benefits may be an increase in the success rate of a type of surgery. Individual benefits may be the teacher's greater satisfaction with the extent to which a new classroom management practice improved the atmosphere in her classroom.

In an effort to increase the effectiveness of continuing professional education programs, it would be useful to identify the program development practices that work well in any one professional field and explore their application in other professional fields.

Collaborative Arrangements

Various groups inside and outside the university have contributed significantly to continuing professional education. Some of the most effective programs have resulted from collaborative efforts. In deciding on the type of collaboration most useful in a specific instance, it is helpful to know the contribution that is typically made by each kind of group.

The university's professional college related most directly to a professional field should provide a major part of the leadership for continuing professional education in that field. Thus the law college should foster continuing legal education, the medical college continuing medical education, and the engineering college continuing education of engineers. The leadership should focus on subject matter content and related knowledge resources. One result——the preparatory education program should be more usefully related to the continuing education program, and both should be more allied with professional practice.

Other colleges, such as liberal arts and related professional colleges can also contribute to continuing professional education. For example, in a program of continuing education for small town pharmacists, faculty from the department of sociology can help

the participants to better understand the dynamics of small community trade areas, and faculty from the college of business administration can deal with aspects of managing a drug store. In addition, the approaches to continuing education of other professional colleges can illustrate alternative approaches for consideration.

Faculty members of a college of education, in addition to their own concern for continuing education of school personnel, can assist other colleges in several ways. The education faculty can develop models for continuing education, and they can conduct research and evaluation related to it. As more professionals in all fields perform instructional roles as a part of their jobs, the education faculty can provide input to various continuing professional education programs regarding the professional as educator.

The divisions of the university that are devoted to public service and continuing education can contribute in various ways. From their experience with many continuing education programs in many professional fields, they can help plan, arrange, conduct, and facilitate the marketing of continuing professional education programs.

Professional associations can also contribute in several ways. Some types of programs that relate closely to recent and practical innovations are best developed by the associations. Co-sponsorship between associations and universities has produced some of the most effective programs of continuing education. Even in programs that are primarily developed by a university, representatives of a related association can make a valuable contribution to program planning by reflecting the concerns of potential participants.

Many professionals are associated in some way with a type of employing organization. Administrators of these organizations can arrange for released time, either for pay or by providing someone to substitute for the professional while he participates in continuing education. Organizational administrators can also offer incentives for increased competence and arrange for professionals to obtain valuable supplementary experiences.

Some of the most innovative and effective programs of continuing education have been supported by grants from philanthropic foundations or governmental funding agencies. In addition to providing outside resources, persons associated with such grantors occasionally serve as idea brokers.

A current challenge to the faculties and administrations of major universities is to develop arrangements to encourage all

these groups to collaborate in ways that produce more effective programs of continuing education.

University Leadership

One dimension of leadership by the university is the creation of new knowledge. Research and development can help to identify and evaluate alternative practices related to continuing education.

One way to focus university leadership regarding continuing professional education would be to organize a task force of persons from the professional colleges, the divisions concerned with continuing education, and the colleges of education; additional personnel might be added from other potential collaborating groups. The purpose of the task force would be to offer recommendations to improve continuing professional education. Representatives of the professional colleges could identify major substantive issues which confront them. The total group could then look for similarities and differences among the issues and could explore policy implications. Representatives of the college of education might develop general models that specify the similarities and differences between professional fields. Spokesmen from the continuing education divisions could suggest ways to better reach the clientele and to implement any program that is planned. An evaluation component of the task force's activity could provide information for the deliberations of task force members; college of education representatives might assist with this input.

The formation of a unit that would work with persons from various colleges on problems related to continuing professional education would produce several beneifts. It could strengthen the units of various colleges that are engaged in continuing education for professioanls in their fields. It could work with professional associations and employers to facilitate collaboration with universities on continuing professional education. It might help to use instructional resources, such as the PLATO computer-based education system, as a vehicle for continuing professional education. It could assist faculty members and graduate students engaged in research related to continuing education to contribute to and benefit from ongoing continuing professional education activities. It could also attract outside resources to extend the university's service. Hopefully, such an arrangement might initiate programs of continuing professional education that will be more effective for the participants and more important for the university.

MODERN BRITISH INFANT EDUCATION: A PERSPECTIVE ON WHAT IT IS AND WHAT THE IMPLICATIONS ARE FOR AMERICAN EDUCATION*

Theodore Manolakes

In this article, Professor Manolakes examines carefully what the British advocate as being of the greatest benefit to the child. He puts into perspective what we in America choose to call "open education" or the "open classroom" and very convincingly puts us in our place as to our so-called innovativeness. He also provides his view of the way to approach the development of an American-style humane school that has a chance for success and survival. This article is must reading for educators at all levels who are trying to make sense out of the open classroom movement in this country. Dr. Manolakes is currently Professor of Elementary Education at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

By now I doubt that anyone is unaware of the general characteristics of the well publicized modern British infant schools. Educators and the public have been amply informed about them through a growing list of books and a deluge of magazine articles. In much of the writing the tag "open classroom" has been attached to what has been developing in England. I don't recall the English using this term. In fact they seem to give what they are doing no special title at all. They usually talk about good education for infants or juniors, but do not go far beyond discussing some specific characteristics of school programs such as the integrated day or family grouping. It points out one difference I have observed between educators in the two countries. We seem to discuss education in our country like we talk about brands of toothpaste, and are constantly trying to sell our special brand, be it IPI, Multi Unit, Becker-Engelmann or something else. The English don't appear to be quite as enamoured of selling neatly packaged educational programs.

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*Adapted from a speech presented at the National Association of Elementary School Principals, Miami, Florida, April 11, 1972.

In spite of the British aversion to educational packaging, a good deal of material written in this country about their schools implies that a fixed model does exist. In some cases the schools are described in almost Utopian terms, which only a press agent for Pan American Airways could have produced. We are presented with an image of programs where tedious tasks have been abolished and where children exist in a warm and supportive atmosphere to produce work which boggles the imagination by its advanced nature and creative characteristics. To the frustrated educator or parent it leaves the impression that the educational "Nirvana" has been achieved by our friends across the Atlantic. There is also the implication that all we need to do is throw out the textbooks, ditto sheets and desks and we too can reach this happy state.

The one characteristic that seems to be stressed over and over again in writings about the informal infant schools is that they are organized to serve the child and that the child is placed before structures of the institution of the school. Descriptions make a major point that the schools are child centered. It is no accident that two major books about informal education in England are entitled *Children Come First* and *Schools Are for Children.* The notion that the school should have as its primary focus the child is not new. It has been a recurring theme in the educational literature for at least one hundred and fifty years. The literature of our own "progressive era" included and stressed this same point of view. American writers of the 1930's and 40's expressed views very much like the orientation I am reading about today that is attributed to English schools. The child centered school is not an invention of the English and in fact is as much a part of our own educational tradition as theirs.

The child centered school had a period of attention in the United States for part of the first half of this century. It was abandoned, not only because the Russians launched Sputnik and we needed more engineers, but because it had lost favor with the American public long before Sputnik. Why is it that a movement that had so much support in this country for quite a long period of time was demolished as a major force so quickly in the 1950's while it continued to develop in England and has persisted? We might look for the differences in cultural patterns; we might look at the organization of schooling and educational traditions; we might even look at the very different political philosophies that have evolved in the two countries over the past thirty years, but I

shall leave that to historians and comparative educators. What we, as practicing educators, must look at is the question of educational validity for the child. The one major difference for me in trying to figure out why informal education survived in England and died out in the United States is, that from my observations, the English have never lost sight of the fact that they are operating schools, and that a school is a place where learning is fostered.

We should ask ourselves whether a commitment to organize schools to serve children in a child-centered way in itself guarantees that in fact such schools offer children what is of most value to them? I raise this question out of deep concern that we may be repeating our own earlier history again. Seemingly some educators in this country have become committed to developing informal schools where the watchword is freedom and expression. In some ways this is a sort of ego-trip which allows adults to feel good about how nice they are to children. Too often they have not bothered to think about their educational intentions and what's in it for kids other than several years of free play and kind treatment. Too many of us seem to think that some confused notion of freedom is what children need most. I am enough of a traditionalist to feel that school remains a place of learning for children. It is an educational institution and not a therapy center for children, or adults trying to work out personal hang-ups.

I raise the question of educational validity and wish to examine it because, if we do not give serious attention to it, others will quite soon after the initial glow of positive advertising has worn off concerning open or informal schooling. Very conservative and formal schools make no claims about being child centered and placing children first, but they do claim to teach primary children essential academic skills and self-discipline. This may not be appealing to educational liberals, but I do know that the American public, when asked to choose between happy children and children who have achieved in these educational basics, will opt for the basics. They have done so in the past.

Can informal schools make the claims that they do an adequate job with skills and self-discipline? You might also want to ask should they? My answer to both questions is yes! It is as simple as this. If we cannot meet basic educational expectancies which have traditionally been held to be important for all children while creating informal and humane schools, these schools may elicit interest for a few years, but they will disappear. In fact the seeds of their own destruction may have already been sown by a

combination of writing about informal education and some of the shoddy attempts I have seen to implement it. American open classrooms do not as yet exhibit either the academic or generally qualitative characteristics of good English schools. In many ways they are not as good as many of the progressive schools that were killed off in the 1950's.

I would like to examine what is of most worth to the child from the standpoint of what traditionalists say it is and look at how good English infant schools seem to handle these areas. I would agree with all who would claim that the primary school should do more than train children in skills and discipline them. I would also contend that we certainly cannot pass off either one of these as inconsequential.

This report comes from impressions that I have gathered from five trips to England to visit schools in the last four years, and a good deal of second-hand information that I have obtained from nearly one hundred students from the University of Illinois, who have done teaching practice in the infant schools of Bristol, England, as part of a semester of study of primary education there. These then are my biased interpretations.

If there is any area of the elementary school curriculum that receives scrutiny by the public, it is the traditional "three R's." Schools continually are judged to be good or bad primarily on what they accomplish in these areas, especially in reading. We might try to distract the public from this concern, but in their terms this is the area of most value to their growing children.

The good English primary schools I have visited in no way play down attention to these central skills and in fact if anything enhance their treatment in several ways. First of all, they have broadened out the three general skill areas mentioned to include attention to communication and expression in its many forms and made this the central core of the program. It is not uncommon to see expression in art leading to writing which in turn leads to reading. Creative dramatics, music, body movement as well as mathematics are all used in various relationships as ways of reporting, expressing feelings and generally communicating. Much of this grows out of natural activities which are stimulated and guided by the teacher.

This approach to the skills is organized and diagnostic. It begins with the creation of a rich environment of possible activities for the child which the teacher has created. The teacher uses this environment, in a natural and noncoercive manner, to lead the

child into doing things that call for the very skills that the formal school seeks. In this content the child not only is guided to learn skills, but applies them in functional situations as well. Motivation comes from the need to accomplish important tasks rather than external assignments and the competitive structures we often use in formal schools.

A third aspect of skill development is in the creation of conditions conducive to stimulating learning. The five-year old child enters into a classroom where older children are reading and writing all around him. Books and stories are part of living in this classroom. The child is immersed in an environment where skills are in evidence long before an active attempt is made to teach him the skills. The system of family grouping of children exposes the five to six and seven year olds and gives the teacher three years to develop and enhance skills. The teacher can stimulate, observe and pick the time for guiding the child into the formal aspects of the skills. Meanwhile he is having a good number of daily informal skill contacts through all sorts of activities.

This broad integrated approach to communication and expression is certainly more complex and demanding in terms of teacher role, but it appears to me, in the hands of a competent professional, to offer far more potential than formal systems we presently use. It is difficult to make comparisions about effectiveness of reading programs, but I can make some comments. I have been impressed by the enthusiasm toward reading shown by children and their desire to share their new skills with strangers. It is not uncommon to have youngsters come up and ask me if they might read to me. The quality of reading I have heard has varied greatly as it would from child to child, but what is impressive is that kids don't view it as tedious or a defeating activity.

American visitors are usually impressed by work in mathematics. I made two visits to English schools with the late Professor Max Beberman, who was recognized to have been the father of "new mathematics" in this country. He was very impressed by the manner in which good programs had helped children become mathematical thinkers and doers. The emphasis on concrete, but sometimes quite complex problems caused children to develop means for attacking and solving problems. This is quite different from the highly academic and symbolic approaches we give young children, which in many cases, are nearly non-functional for them.

Probably most impressive of all to visitors is work in writing. Its quality, both from the standpoint of construction and ideation,

is superior to anything I have seen in this country even in classes for our gifted. It apparently comes from the place and emphasis given to it in the program. Quality is also influenced by the fact that topics used are usually quite close and important to the writer and the fact that teachers use a variety of effective ways to help children refine their work. One thing we can swipe from the British, even if we don't want to totally buy an informal classroom, is the way they approach and nurture writing.

Discussing self-discipline in an informal classroom offers some difficulty because of some long held assumptions about what many contribute to it. Many parents feel this is really developed in children through a process of having them realize and accept the fact that all of us must do many things that are not necessarily fun. I recently attended a meeting in the Chicago suburbs where parents were raising this very question about informal education. They pointed out that the grown-up world wasn't all fun and games and that children must become aware of this fact and learn good work habits. I am sure most of you have heard this point of view expressed from time to time.

There is an assumption in this view that the only way to develop a realistic attitude toward work is by forcing children to do irrelevant work as a kind of training. This makes it difficult to convince many people that what goes on in those informal classrooms is very good preparation for the realities of the world. These schools often have no visible assignments. They don't appear to follow a schedule of times when any subjects get covered, and kids spend too much time doing activities that don't look like school. It's more like play.

It is my belief that good English schools do a great deal in the area of self-discipline and work habits, but in ways that are different. First of all I would contend that the self-discipline imposed on youngsters in those school is, if anything, more demanding and rigorous than we find in formal schools. Our formal programs, which seem to impress some parents, are based on group assignments. They ignore the fact that doing group assignments really involves playing a game called getting done, especially among more able youngsters. Our formal schools really operate from a concept of coverage as being most important and where there is an expectancy that all 210 pages in the text must be covered by the end of the year. The emphasis is on completing work and moving on. Kids learn this very early and do learn to get it done, but what they also learn is that personal concern for quality may not be

very important. As I look at schools in this country and see the shoddy work that is sometimes accepted by teachers, I can only assume that the reason for this is that there is no time to do otherwise. We must get on to the next page!

Many English infant schools don't operate from a fixed curriculum or a text-based program. The program is so differentiated that the tasks undertaken by children are aimed right at them. Activities have been selected as being something worth doing. In addition getting done is not valued over the quality of what gets done. The three-year grouping pattern takes a good deal of pressure off teacher and children to rush through activities. These factors have contributed to a strong commitment toward quality and craftsmanship as an integral part of the way classrooms are operated.

The adult role played by English teachers in informal schools is often misunderstood by Americans, who somehow equate informal schooling with a permissive hands-off stance by teachers once all the nice activities have been arranged in the room. Teachers know what they are in their classrooms to accomplish and, although they are willing to use time and kindness to accomplish their ends, there is no question about who they are and what their goals are. Standards and expectancies are certainly a part of their role, but in the better schools the means for achieving these ends are often subtle.

We could probably spend a good deal of time choosing sides with regard to what sort of conditions are most conducive to the growth of self-discipline on the part of youngsters. For my part I am willing to state that it is more important that children be involved in work that is personally compelling and where the outcomes of the work is of concern to child and teacher. I would rather send on a child who has had these kinds of early experiences than one whose interests have been dampened and who very early has learned to play a game called doing school work.

What else does the good school do that is of high worth to the child? Although the public may not make as strong demands for them, I will identify two more that I hold to be very important. They deal with the responsibility for any school to aid children in building confidence as a learner and the responsibility of the school to aid the child in developing and using functional knowledge. I fear that both these elements are lacking in many of our schools today.

I believe that a primary responsibility of the school is to do its best to educate, but that in doing so it does nothing to demean, diminish or do injury to the child's personal view of himself as a learner. It does us little good if our educational treatments, which are intended to help children, destroy their confidence in themselves in the process. To me this is our ultimate accountability as educators. When we accept a child into school, we have an obligation to that child that we cannot avoid.

I am sure that you all agree with this position and that few teachers set out to ever do harm to the way that a child thinks about himself as a learner, but there is too much evidence that it is happening too often in too many of our schools. It does appear that our rigid adherence to school curricula, standardized materials and competitive grading practices do have this effect. In addition the very subtle ways we communicate the inadequacies of children to them does create destructive conditions. I believe that we can change this and evolve institutions where we take fewer educational casualties.

No realistic person would state that informal schools in England are free of destructive influence on children in the area of confidence as learners. Although the conditions I will discuss do give the possibility that these classrooms are healthier places for kids, there is always the teacher variable and the interactions between teacher and child which can be negative regardless of the organization of the program.

The basic advantage of the British approach to education, insofar as the possibility of the child building a positive self concept is concerned, is that they avoid many of the fabricated structures that we have built into our system of formal education. There is no written school curriculum. Usually a statement of philosophy serves as a general guide for school program. Teachers are not bound to fixed sets of materials or to specific topics which must be covered. In selecting activities and experiences for the children the teacher can take into consideration their developmental level and appropriateness of the work to be done. In addition, family grouping takes the time pressure from the teacher, and also gives the teacher enough time to get to know the child. Family grouping also creates such a wide range of differences in the classroom that group comparisons are almost impossible. Children see other children doing all sorts of work at different levels and are not bothered by this. In addition to all this, the grading and reporting system is not used in a comparative manner. Both

report cards and parent conferences focus on the youngsters' personal growth and development.

The factors discussed above may not guarantee that children come away feeling any better about themselves as learners, but when I compare them to our own formal systems I think that the potential is certainly more likely found in the informal classroom. If we can achieve the academic education of children and not destroy their confidence in the process, we may be edging up toward the educational ideal.

Are there any implications for us in this discussion of important elements of value in the education of children? It appears to me that to think in terms of educational transplant from England to the United States is not very realistic. The differences in cultural and historical traditions present enough of a gap to make direct applications nearly impossible. In most areas we have not vested in the individual school the autonomy to build unique programs that can recognize community needs and philosophy of the staff. It is also true that our schools have been traditionally organized to be managed. In spite of the lip service to the contrary, the elementary principal in our country is not the head teacher and instructional leader. He is the school manager and in most districts the important decisions have already been made for him centrally.

There are things, though, that we can do to begin the process of bringing about the education for children that does meet the educational expectancies of the public and doesn't bore or destroy good numbers of kids in the process. First a caution. Let's stay off the bandwagons and away from cheap advertising. This form of education is really more a point of view toward educating kids and a whole variety of related approaches than it is a neat package. Informal education might be viewed as a developing continuum. The beginnings can be small and not require a great deal of fanfare or publicity. I have run across one principal who talked some of her teachers into getting rid of one-third of their classroom desks. She helped the brave ones organize their rooms in other ways to provide a program. She has never called it informal education or anything else that I know of, but things are happening in that school and a good deal of the formalism is breaking down. We might really think, not in terms of instant reform and change, which is our impatient way, but change with direction over a period of time.

In addition to time and evolution rather than flashy revolution, I would like to see some serious thought given to how support systems can be built to help teachers get the job they wish to do done. Teachers hesitate to make moves they might like to make because they don't feel they will receive the support of their colleagues and their principal. They also hesitate because the changes require developing some new skills and approaches to teaching. If we are to build an American-style humane school that will survive, school districts, universities and state agencies are going to need to pool resources to take on the job in a manner never before attempted.

In evolving more informal programs I see one more condition that must be faced and is related to the question of continuing education and teacher development; that is the whole question of in-school leadership. As I said earlier, we have created conditions in this country where the school principal is not expected to act like an English head. Our buildings are too big and our job expectancies differ, yet more than any other factor contributing to the success or failure of school programs in England is the quality and leadership of the head who is given both the responsibility and authority to educate about 200 children. I am convinced that we will not really change our educational programs much unless we look at the question of providing expert leadership to teachers. I don't recommend tearing down all our big buildings and firing all of the principals who may not have the expertise to act as a master teacher in a smaller building, but what I think we can do is begin to select and offer further training to our best teachers, so that they might take on advisory roles under the direction of the school principal. I am not talking about administrative positions like assistant principals, but master teachers or advisers freed to help induct new teachers and to aid the continuing development of experienced teachers. I would also assume that these pros would have a major hand in program development in the schools. This may sound wacky in a time of very tight money, but I fear that we are presently spending enormous amounts of money in the wrong places now on all sorts of gimmicks that have minimal impact on children.

For the near future I do not see or hope for widespread jumping into informal education by our schools. What I would like to see in the next five years are some classrooms available in communities which are offered to parents as alternatives to our standard formal programs. I want the number small because I am

concerned that what is undertaken be done with a high degree of quality. These high quality islands of informality then might continue to evolve and become influential in the long-term modification of the school system.

As I have indicated earlier in this paper, I am concerned that the seeds of the destruction of this second attempt to loosen up the schools may already be sown in this country by too much publicity too soon and some amateur attempts to informalize. I am not totally pessimistic though because I still believe that the public will appreciate good education when offered it and that we do have the time, the ability, and the commitment to produce sound programs which allow schools to really be a place of learning for children.

SHOULD FRESHMAN COMPOSITION BE A REQUIRED SEQUENCE?

Alfred J. Lindsey

Any of us who has taken Freshman English Composition (and who of us hasn't?) is entitled to his own private thoughts about its effect on his college career. It should be of some comfort to us who struggled over the hurdle to know that some are more publicly raising questions about the ways that Freshman Composition is taught, and that our college English-teaching colleagues have a lively controversy going about their professional activities. Following is an exploration and critique of both traditional and proposed practices in that most ubiquitous of college academic experiences. Dr. Lindsay is Director of Freshman Composition at Western Illinois University at Macomb.

As the financial crunch continues to assail institutions of higher education, administrators and faculties are casting increasingly serious and often disapproving glances at programs of freshman composition, which represent an expensive and often professionally disappointing outlay of staggering financial sums. Indeed, the funding of required freshman composition courses is being seriously investigated nation-wide. But is the resulting curricular attack reasonable? And is it judicious?

The prevailing situation in the teaching of composition is paradoxical indeed. At the very same time when the word *accountability* is becoming central in education, there continues to be an expanding proliferation of objectives in composition, a phenomenon that is aptly demonstrated by a casual examination of both the horrendous numbers and types of textbooks and rhetoric readers as well as the various pedagogical approaches to teaching the skill.

But accountability has become a key cliche in education. Whether faculties like it or not, they must have answers for their critics, especially those financing higher education. In the teaching of composition, such answers have been difficult indeed to come by, a situation that has increasingly resulted in a denigration of composition instruction at the college and university levels. It is thus no surprise that the composition requirement is increasingly being waived. Why not? If English or communications depart-

ments are not teaching students to have increased skill in writing, why require the subject?

Immediately, many typical liberal arts professors would rally with the following philosophical ideals: Freshman composition humanizes, and this cannot be measured; it matures, and this, too, is difficult to define. Moreover, it allows students to deal with ideas and to educate the imagination, these also being beyond measurement. Ultimately, it is a major prop in securing a liberal education as it awakens the intellect.

All of these answers have a certain logic; there is much truth and good sense represented by them, yet they are not defensible as the central organizing principle in a university course of freshman composition. In required freshman composition courses, students should be taught the translatable skills necessary for writing logically developed papers. Indeed, the students have every right to demand such help; the public at large, those who finance higher education, already have made known their concern that these skills be taught, hence the demand that English departments be held accountable for teaching composition skills.

Such thinking, however, is not palatable to many in chairs of higher education. Unfortunately, many of these people are not doing their homework concerning developments in secondary education, and they are thus confusing the role of the secondary schools with that of the universities. Increasingly, high school English programs, staffed with enlightened, professional teachers, are dedicated to working with student self-concepts and creativity, a development begun in the United States in progressive days, imported to England, and recently resurrected in America via the Dartmouth Seminar. In the English program, increasing numbers of teachers are endeavoring to produce a situation in which each student will succeed if he meets professionally set objectives. Moreover, the creative approach to composition is central; imaginative, honest writing is an important focus of the program. All of this is most commendable. Finally the pendulum is returning in secondary education where it must: meeting the needs of youth and producing healthy human beings. Certainly in teaching English at the secondary, junior high school, and elementary levels, the education of the imagination is important for nearly every student. Indeed, creative writing is important, as is its expository counterpart.

To assume, however, that a concordant situation exists at the university level is to be myopic indeed, particularly at a time when

substantial numbers of the public are losing or have lost faith in higher education. The time for injudicious freshman composition pedagogy is past; it is time to attend to business. In his brilliant book *Themes, Theories, and Therapy: The Teaching of Writing in College,* Albert Kitzhaber has wisely outlined two primary justifications for freshman composition: the service course and the liberal ideals. The first of these has as its business to "provide immediate therapy for students . . . ; the course must remedy deficiencies of high school training in English and develop each student's writing skill to the level of competence required by college work." The second approach leads to the focus of the student's "attention on fundamental principles of clear thinking and effective written expression of that thinking and to give him disciplined practice in applying these principles."

Unfortunately, though, many university English departments have failed and are failing to meet these two objectives. An examination of the current crop of textbooks in use provides a partial answer to the failure to meet the objectives. Unless those books are substantially supplemented by the instructor, rhetorical principles are neglected. One might cite the countless paperback readers that are no more than psychotic left wing shouting or watered down Marxistic-Leninistic sociology; many do no more than to make a political statement or to pander to adolescentism. Then there are the creative books: just be honest, just "let it all hang out," and good writing habits develop. But more is required, as Kitzhaber has aptly demonstrated. Another dimension of the problem is to be noted in a consideration of the teaching population. Many composition departments are staffed primarily with graduate assistants; many others are peopled primarily by young M.A.'s. It is no secret that a majority of these people have had little or no training in composition; their specialty is literature, imaginative writing. Nearly everything in their backgrounds would lead them to teaching the historic or generic study of literature. Also, many of the young teachers are social activists, and it is thus no surprise at all that too often their classes degenerate into gut level sociology courses, rap sessions, or sensitivity training. An even more serious aspect of the problem is that the process of composition is distressingly painful and, research would tend to indicate, very nearly impossible to teach, a situation that calls to question much of what happens even in the classrooms where teachers work to meet the service and liberal ideals mentioned earlier. Certainly the formalistic study of literature as the central

focus needs to be questioned, although such study seems to have utility in the development of critical abilities and close reading, both valuable requisites to effective writing. To be seriously questioned, also, is the currently popular study of "hot topics" written by professionals and/or madmen, a pedagogically unsound approach which demands a sophistication and maturity that most freshmen cannot bring to the subject.

And so it goes; there is substantial difficulty in attempting to point to an empirical ideal or ideals for a method or methods that are effective. Rather, it is possible to focus on a population of approaches that do *not* work. And this is valuable counsel.

Thus, it is not possible to assert that there is a pedagogically sound approach to teach all students composition. Certainly such an optimistic claim would be unprofessional. Yet if freshman composition is to be salvaged, the following objective must be attained with most university students: to enable the students to produce an effectively-written essay. If this objective is accomplished with most students, English departments will have achieved an accountability that is to be admired, and the students will have powerful assistance in their collegiate careers.

But incorrect interpretations of the liberal and service ideals in composition have led to a polarization that is not healthy. For some reason, there is often an assumption by many English teachers that creativity and/or the aspirations and anxieties of the students do not adequately juxtapose with rhetorical principles. Such an assumption is simply incorrect; it is, in fact, a typical example of the kind of fallacious reasoning that is often heard in discussions about freshman composition. Be that as it may, the polarization has eventuated in a growing population of books that talk of honesty and student interest at the expense of skill in developing a paper.

But why can't students develop their important anxieties and aspirations logically, with as few mechanical errors as possible? Indeed, one of the primary purposes of freshman composition is to direct the students to express their most important ideas in a logical, rhetorical fashion. Of course, they should be doing it vigorously and honestly; but the student has every right to expect, even demand, therapy in his writing weaknesses as well as instruction in how to develop his ideas logically in writing.

An example suffices to demonstrate what may happen. In a freshman composition course, a student was shown a picture of a

runner and was then asked to react to the picture honestly, an experiment resulting in the following writing:

Run Quickly
Run
Run all day
Run silently
Run
Run all night
Run all your life
Run to your grave
Never know why
Never anyone to answer
Run through the city
Run through the country
Humanity swiftly behind
Conform, conform the hollow masses shout
But I run . . . Run
To be free, to be me
I run . . . . . .

Indeed, this little poem is imaginative, and in some ways very effective. The student has been honest; and, no doubt, she feels that she has created something of value. Perhaps she has done so, and in a creative writing course it would probably be acceptable. Such work is not, however, acceptable in freshman composition, for it does not meet either the liberal or service course ideals. This young lady has every right to demand that she be taught or allowed to discover how logically to develop a topic and to get some remediation in those writing weaknesses she may have.

Still another example further demonstrates the problem. A student was asked to develop a paper on his most important worry or concern. The result follows, and it is typical of many freshman papers:

LEADERS

Leaders, structure freaks, watch out for that stuff. Its no good. It has been shown in the past that all leaders lead us only to the present. This is the best a leader can offer. The good leader and the bad leader both. The whole idea of the great, good, leader is just a grotesh falocy. For all a leader can promise is a trip to the present. We all know who are leader is now, and were his at. He led us only to the present. And you know where thats at. Today is just an example of the fact that a leader has nothing to say about the trip

he's on because whatever his trip it leads in only to the present.

One might ask, is that so bad. Well, all I can say is open your eyes. Look around. The proverty, the inhumanity, the bigity, the crime, we are fighting a losing battle against the present. All of these problems have stemed out of the past, and past leader who think they had the answer. But, there answers were only the present.

I have said that leaders are bad. Thats not so, they mean well. Don't they know theres no way, no way it can work?

I've talked about the past, but how about the future? I fear me a new leader with old ideas will take several giant steps in the future and leave only the present or a swift, movement of his "great" rule

I've given a few of my ideas on leadership, and the proposition it was built on. I don't think that there is anything we or anyone else can do about the problem. Do you have any ideas?

Again it is clear that the student spoke frankly. Moreover, he felt proud of the effort, claiming it to be the finest bit of writing that he had yet accomplished. Many teachers, of course, those politically or irrationally oriented, might urge the student along with the raised fist and a "right on." Such teachers would be reinforcing the student's self-concept, but they would be doing him no other favor whatsoever. Rather, they would be progreamming him for failure in anything but a creative writing course or a slogan-shouting extremist political meeting. And such unprofessional pedagogy has deservingly earned the ire of colleagues and the public at large, hence the movement toward accountability.

The essay in question is spirited; little more positive should be said about it. What, in fact, does it attempt to say? In the first paragraph, there is a jumble of ideas which seem to represent a type of existential comment, confused though it is, about the idea that good leadership is not a hopeful development; rather, the leader cannot help what he is, because——and here the reasoning becomes sophomoric——his leadership leads only to the present, which the student sees as being abominable. The logic, of course, is irrational, and the student needs immediate remediation in writing sentences. In the second paragraph, he considers whether or not the leading only to the present is good or bad, and submits that there is only a losing battle against the present. Here again the student needs help with writing a sentence, and he needs to give attention to his spelling. In the third paragraph, the student weakens the point he has already made; surprisingly, he asserts that leaders do mean well, but that a solution is absolutely beyond them. However, this damages his already sophomoric argument.

The fourth paragraph is absolute gibberish said in a rather artful way. Translated, it means that a new leader with old ideas will lead to the present. No doubt that is so, but what does it say or mean? In the last paragraph the student tries to sum up the paper by informing the reader that there were a few ideas on leadership considered. But then he says that there was a discussion about "the proposition it was built on"; he did, in fact, not accomplish this at all. He finished by making his existential comment on the hopelessness of leadership, this being, it would seem, the thesis that he had intended to develop. Also, in many places, the student is in dire need of giving examples, citing instances, and generally backing up what he says.

Teachers can chatter about getting away from showy, pretentious language, and they can cluck vigorously about writing that is alive. But they had better not, then, award this essay with superlatives and send the student on to upper level courses in all fields glowing at his ability to be honest, vigorous, and creative. Such teachers would be programming the student for failure, and such teachers would not be living up to their professional obligations.

The two students whose writings have just been examined are representative of hundreds of thousands of other youths in college. They, like their peers, must join the public at large in demanding that freshman composition teachers be held accountable for teaching the following:

(1) how to develop content
(2) how to determine organization
(3) how to arrive at an effective style
(4) how to remediate weaknesses in mechanics

These skills can be taught to most young people so that they can logically order their honest, creative thinking.

But how is this to be accomplished? Obviously, the three most popular approaches are wide reading, study of rhetorical principles, and considerable student writing with revision. Certainly a student should study rhetorical principles as they apply to his writing. In this regard, he should study the invention of arguments; the arrangement and organization of the arguments; the effective use of stylistic procedures in presenting the arguments. More precisely, each student should be helped to write sentences and paragraphs, to define a topic, to develop a paper with a begin-

ning, a middle, and an end, to learn ways of introducing and concluding topics, and to use transitional devices effectively. Furthermore, he should be taught strategies for developing a paper, and he should have help in eliminating his mechanical weaknesses.

And to the degree that departments of English have failed to teach these skills, the public and colleagues have lost faith in freshman composition as a required course or sequence of courses. Indeed, the future of freshman composition seems tenuous at this hour. Soon an important national study will demonstrate that increasingly freshman composition is being dropped as a requirement, a development that is antithetical to the needs of substantial numbers of beginning college or university students. If the profession continues to display its particular brand of irresponsibility, if the unprofessional proliferation of curricular madness continues, a generation of students will have been cheated; a profession will have abandoned its professional responsibility. The very cornerstone of higher education will have been eroded because of ignorance, chauvinism, or myopia.

Freshman composition must not be a course in creative writing. It must not be a course in literature. It must not be a course in revolution. It must not be a course in sociology. It must not be a course to make minority groups feel good about their composition deficiencies. It must not be a course in social or political reconstruction. It must not be a soap box for youthful teachers to shout their views on sex or Viet Nam. To the degree that such unprofessional irresponsibility is practiced, freshman composition programs fail dismally. Such failure, however, is legion in institutions of higher education, and the public as well as our own colleagues have quite rightfully caught the profession with its proverbial pants down.

And so there is reputable cause for freshman composition programs to be seriously questioned and professionally examined. Moreover, there is more than substantial reason to withhold financial and professional support from programs that do not meet the "service" and "liberal" ideals. Indeed, the freshman composition program must remedy weaknesses in students' writing so that they can successfully compete on the university level, and it must focus on the application of clear, logical thinking as each student is taught how to plan, organize, and develop the expository essay. If the program fails to achieve these goals, there remains considerable doubt that freshman composition should be funded.

A REVIEW OF PERFORMANCE BASED TEACHER EDUCATION: DEFINITION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCERNS

Thomas McGreal

It has been noted by the editors of The Review *that there was no topic within the range of teacher education that was receiving more attention than the concept of performance-based teacher education programs. As a service to our readers, we have tried in this article to succinctly present the best available definition and description of PBTE and to give an overview of the possible implications and the problems of this concept. Much of the material presented is drawn from a publication by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.* We are grateful for their permission to reproduce and paraphase much of their material. We close this article with excerpts from a letter to the faculty of the College of Education at Urbana-Champaign from the Dean of the College, J. Myron Atkin. In this letter, Dean Atkin presents a point of view about PBTE that is well supported throughout the College. Our readers are invited to send their reactions to the PBTE movement and the contents of this article to* The Review *for possible inclusion in a later issue.*

"Performance-based teacher education, sporadic and scattered as it is, has the potential for restructuring the education of teachers. It bespeaks the emerging future and points the way for teacher education."

Dr. Edward C. Pomeroy, 1972
Hunt Lecture, AACTE Annual Meeting
Chicago, Illinois

"Probably no educational movement of recent times has shown so much promise as this application of a common principle———competency-based instruction———simultaneously to practice in the schools and to the education of teachers for the schools. The prospects for teacher education seem nothing short of phenomenal."

Dr. Robert B. Howsam, Dean
College of Education
University of Houston

These are two examples of the kind of statements being made about the potential value of performance-based teacher education

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[1]Stanley M. Elam, Editor. *Performance-Based Teacher Education: What is The State of the Art?* American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, D.C., December, 1971.

(PBTE) is by no means a full-fledged movement. It has been called by some a multifaceted concept in search of practitioners. There are, however, a growing number of signs that a "reform" movement within teacher education of considerable strength is in the making. It is our intention to try to bring some clarity to this growing movement by looking at just how PBTE is defined, some of the implications it holds, and some of the concerns people have about it.

What is Performance-Based Teacher Education?

In the AACTE publication, *Performance-Based Teacher Education: What is the State of the Art?,* the following discussion is presented by PBTE:

> Much traditional teacher education can best be described as experience-based. That is, it assumes that if a student, planning to teach, experiences a specified number of courses in specified areas of study and undergoes some kind of student teaching experience, he is ready to begin teaching. Such programs are performance-based only insofar as the required grade-point average can be considered a performance measure. They do not specify what prospective teachers need to be able to do or accomplish.
>
> By contrast, in performance-based programs performance goals are specified, and agreed to, in rigorous detail in advance of instruction. The student must either be able to demonstrate his ability to promote desirable learning or exhibit behaviors known to promote it. He is held accountable, not for passing grades, but for attaining a given level of competency in performing the essential tasks of teaching; the training institution is itself held accountable for producing able teachers. Emphasis is on demonstrated product or output. [1]

This sort of preliminary definition is at this time the only attempt to really provide a satisfactory description of PBTE. In fact, there has been some disagreement as to the label given to PBTE. There are some proponents of the concept that see the label "competency-based teacher education" as being a more comprehensive label. This idea is based on criteria established by

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[1] Stanley M. Elam, Editor. *Performance-Based Teacher Education: What is The State of the Art?* American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, D.C., December, 1971.

Weber and Cooper for use in determining competency.[2] According to them, three types of criteria may be used: 1) knowledge criteria, to assess the cognitive understandings of the student; 2) performance criteria, to assess the teaching behavior of the student; and 3) product criteria, to assess the student's ability to teach by examining the achievement of pupils taught by the student. Thus, it is felt by some that the use of the term "performance" seems too restrictive, and tends to focus only on criterion number two. However, the AACTE committee on PBTE, which is the primary force behind the study of PBTE has chosen to retain the "performance-based" label. It was their feeling that the label was relatively unimportant as long as there was consensus as to the elements that are essential in distinguishing performance (or) competency based programs from other teacher education programs.

In reviewing the literature, it would appear that there does seem to be general agreement as to what are the essential elements that must be present in a program before it can be called a PBTE program. The elements are as follows:

1. Competencies (knowledge, skills, behaviors) to be demonstrated by the student[3] are

   A. derived from explicit conceptions of teacher roles,

   B. stated so as to make assessment of a student's behavior in relation to specific competencies, and

   C. made public in advance;

2. Criteria to be employed in assessing competencies are

   A. based upon, and in harmony with, specified competencies,

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[2] Wilford C. Weber, James Cooper, and Charles Johnson. "A Competency-Based Systems Approach to Education," first chapter of *Designing Competency-Based Teacher Education Programs: A Systems Approach,* unpublished manuscript, 1971.

[3] The term "student" is used to mean the person completing the preparation program. In-service teachers would not be excluded, it is just that at this point PBTE seems to be directed at the pre-service level.

B. explicit in stating expected levels of mastery under specified conditions, and

C. made public in advance;

3. Assessment of the student's competency

A. uses his performance as the primary source of evidence,

B. takes into account evidence of the student's knowledge relevant to planning for, analyzing, interpreting, or evaluating situations or behavior, and

C. strives for objectivity;

4. The student's rate of progress through the program is determined by demonstrated competency rather than by time or course completion;

5. The instructional program is intended to facilitate the development and evaluation of the student's achievement of competencies specified.[4]

Along with this set of essential elements, there are a number of implied characteristics of a PBTE program:

1. Because time is a variable and not a constant, instruction will be individualized and personalized.

2. Learning experiences of the student are guided by feedback. This feedback can be from others or can come from self-evaluation (videotape playbacks of the teaching performance, etc.).

3. The program is systemic. A systems approach helps establish the product oriented process that aids in evaluation procedures.

4. The emphasis will be on exit, rather than entrance requirements.

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[4] AACTE, *op. cit.*, 6.

5. Instruction will be modularized. The modules will be sets of learning activities (with objectives, prerequisites, pre-assessment, instructional activities, post assessment, and remediation) intended to promote the student's acquisition and demonstration of a particular competency.

6. The student is held accountable for performance, and completes the preparation program only when he demonstrates the competencies that have been identified as requisite for a particular professional role.[5]

In addition to the essential and the concomitant elements listed above, there are a number of related and desirable characteristics that, although not essential, help promote the success of PBTE efforts. These include such things as: field-centered activities that put much of the performance assessment in actual classrooms; broadbased decision making on program elements by all involved (college faculty, students, public school personnel); materials and experiences focus upon concepts, skills, and knowledge that can be learned in a specific instructional setting; the systemic nature of PBTE programs which provides for feedback loops easily promotes a built-in research component; preparation for a role is viewed as a continuing process and thus PBTE programs should provide for more than preservice teacher advances through the program and gains increasing perception of teaching problems.

Putting these desirable characteristics together with the AACTE-defined essential elements gives what is probably the best "definition" of PBTE that is available at this time.

Implications of Performance-Based Teacher Education

Because there are only a few programs actually in operation around the country that fit the PBTE description, any statement on implications must be considered at best "future-ing." However, both the proponents of PBTE and the neutral observers of teacher education directions in this country seem to be in agreement as to the potential implications of what is obviously an ever-growing force. As the pressures continue to mount in the move toward

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[5] AACTE, *op. cit.*, 7.

PBTE, it is projected that the following conditions will become increasingly visible in teacher education institutions:

A. much greater program flexibility, permitting students to progress at their own rate, with many alternatives and options;

B. greater attention to specific skill training;

C. greater congruity between objectives and the evidence admitted for evaluation purposes;

D. better rationalization of faculty decisions and demands affecting students; and

E. development of new facilities and technology required by PBTE.[6]

It is also likely that as PBTE continues to grow in stature, there will be an increasing demand for cooperation between teacher training institutions, state departments of education, professional associations, and the public schools. Certainly one example of this cooperation would be the elimination of automatic certification based on successful completion of the college curriculum. Rather, certification would be gained only by meeting performance criteria established through cooperative decision-making on the part of the various agencies concerned with the quality of teachers.[7]

PBTE also has implications with respect to in-service education. It certainly has implications for evaluation and promotion, in that it could promote the use of assessment of performance criteria for the purpose of merit pay increases and tenure recommendations. And it will have definite implications for the currently popular move toward increased role differentiation.

The individualized instruction that is an important part of the PBTE movement quite likely could have impact beyond teacher education. Once the old patterns of emphasis on entrance require-

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[6]AACTE, *op cit.*, 11.

[7]This concept is discussed further in B. Othaniel Smith, "Certification of Educational Personnel." Unpublished manuscript, 1971.

ments, grades for credit hours taken, fixed-schedule classes, mass certification, etc., are broken, and independent study, built-in feedback procedures, and assessment based on performance are emphasized, these new patterns are likely to spread to other parts of the college curriculum as well. Such a pattern is already developing outside of teacher education in many institutions.

Concerns About Performance-Based Teacher Education

Many unanswered questions plague the easy acceptance of PBTE programs. Establishing valid criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of such programs is particularly difficult. There would seem to be an increasing consensus that pupil learning is the appropriate criterion for assessing the effectiveness of teacher trainers and training programs; however, until relationships between teacher behaviors and pupil learning can be more firmly established through research and improved measurement, judgments will have to be made on *a priori* grounds. Also, there is a danger that competencies that are easy to describe and measure will dominate PBTE; hence, a special effort will be needed to broaden the concept and to emphasize more divergent, creative, and personal experiences. There are a number of political and management problems (development of consortium arrangements, balance between simulation and real performances, additional funding sources, etc.) that must be dealt with before a satisfactory PBTE program can be developed.[8]

In addition to the obvious areas of criteria establishment, assessment procedures, and the political and managerial problems, recent critiques of PBTE have also been critical of its philosophic underpinnings and of the validity of some of the assumptions made by the proponents of PBTE. For an enlightened and rational view of the assumptions underlying PBTE and a critical view of much of the movement, it is suggested that one obtain a copy of the following document: Broudy, Harry S., *A Critique of Performance-Based Teacher Education,* PBTE series #4. American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, One Dupont Circle, Suite #610, Washington, D.C. 20036.

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[8] AACTE, *op cit.*, 23.

Additional Comment From the College of Education

Following is a letter that was sent to the faculty of the University of Illinois College of Education by Dean J. Myron Atkin. It is presented here following our brief review of PBTE so that our readers can deduce the sense of our College as its reacts to the PBTE movement. Although the Dean quite clearly labels the opinions expressed in this letter as only his own, the editors would comment that the views expressed are held by a large number of the faculty of this college.

TO: Members of the Faculty
College of Education

Dear Colleagues:

We have entered a period during which our pre-service programs have been identified for special examination. While the most visible pressures come from the Illinois Board of Higher Education, the most searching questions about our efforts in this field have been and probably will continue to be asked by people in our own College.

It is clear that as a faculty we affirm anew the importance of pre-service programs for professionals in education at the University of Illinois, and this sentiment is not heard solely (nor even primarily) in the departments that carry the major responsibility. The education of teachers is seen by the faculty generally as in need of vast improvement. We have the talents and the commitment on this campus to have a significant influence on improving current practice; this sentiment is voiced forcefully throughout the College, and it is voiced frequently.

To supplement the lively discussion on this topic, I write not to inject some of my own beliefs into our deliberations. This action, I hope, will stimulate further the exchange of views within the College and also encourage additional faculty to become engaged with teacher education issues——including faculty who at the moment may not have direct responsibility for our pre-service programs.

Spearheaded by the exhortations of the United States Office of Education and prodded by their dollars, American teacher

education is moving pell mell toward programs that are "competency based." What should a teacher be able to do? What are the "behavioral objectives" of a teacher education program? We are told to build our training activities and our certification programs for teachers on what teachers can *do*——not what they know, nor the experiences they have had, nor on what they believe, nor on their general perspective of the tasks they face, nor on who they *are*.

The pressures that have led to this trend are readily traced. We spend tens of billions of dollars on schooling. Eighty per cent of operational expenses are used to pay teachers. Yet an unconscionably large number of children are learning less than they are capable of learning. We must raise the educational attainment levels of our school-age population. The schools must be brought to account. Teachers must acquire the necessary skills to allow each child to benefit to the maximum from his attendance in school and from the public investment in education. If the universities don't develop these skills in prospective teachers, let's find substitute teacher-training sites that will.

There are many problems, in my view, with the current rush toward competency-based programs. The fundamental one may lie in the easy assumption that we either know or can readily identify all the educational objectives for which we strive in teacher education. In a field as complex as teaching, and one that is so dependent for its success on the personal qualities of the teacher, one must be aware that to delineate all the requisite competencies is to risk either undesirable oversimplification or confusing and labyrinthian detail.

The move toward competency-based teacher education, however laudable the intent, tends inevitably to emphasize the relatively mechanical, visible, and proximate aspects of a teacher's responsibilities. We tend to overlook long-term and private effects —— as well as side effects. Further, behavioral objectives tend to limit the range of the teacher's actions because he becomes committed to a curriculum based on the competencies that have been successfully identified and for which he is trained.

Finally, for now, designers of competency-based programs tend to accept all too casually the fact that those skills which we can readily identify and describe are those that become the focus for our programs. Our goals in teacher education should be derived from our needs and our philosophies, not solely from the ease of ready operationalization.

As we search individually and collectively for the distinctive contributions we might make at Illinois to teacher education, I suggest we consider a focus on developing strong alternatives to the competency-based programs that are so fashionable today. I express this hope for several reasons.

(1) Almost every other institution is pursuing the competency-based route. While I am sure we have the ability to make contributions to this trend —— and indeed we have faculty members who are, will, and should continue to do so —— I have little doubt the movement will flourish even without the aid of large numbers of our faculty.

(2) I sense deep reservations about the competency-based approaches throughout the College. Many faculty members feel that these approaches miss the richness and subtlety of the teacher's responsibility. In their inattention to theoretical and perspective-building studies, the competency-based programs train primarily technically competent people who may be poorly adaptive in a changing society.

(3) We have unusual, and I think unique, strengths in contextual studies in this faculty —— and in all departments.

(4) We have an unusually capable student body. I believe we can run the risk of developing programs counter to national trends without handicapping them. It is my belief that our students will seem all the more attractive to a significant number of employers if we eschew the competency-based route and offer employers greater choice.

(5) We do well to foster pluralism in many areas of educational policy, including policy for teacher education.

(6) It is my conviction that the competency-based programs will fall of their own weight before many years have passed. It would be salutory if one strong institution were developing alternatives in the meantime.

J. Myron Atkin
Dean

UNIVERSITY AND PUBLIC SCHOOL COLLABORATION IN TEACHER EDUCATION: ITS POTENTIAL, PROBLEMS, AND PROMISE

Donald S. Monroe

The rapid changes in successful practice in education and the fast-closing doors of teacher training programs as supply overtakes demand in the market for new professionals have converged to form a serious problem for colleges and schools alike: the traditional relationship between colleges of education and their active professional alumni is no longer acceptable to many in both camps. New structures are called for; and their shape and purpose are discussed in the article below. Dr. Monroe is Personnel Director of Elementary District #25, Arlington Heights, Illinois.

In recent years (or is it days?) both the universities and the public schools have been bombarded by a host of unfriendly faces. The university has had to confront dissatisfaction with traditional teacher training models at a time of budget cutbacks, dried up government funds, declining enrollments, and a surplus of teachers that shows no sign of letting up for three or four years. Some of the problems that besiege public schools—client dissatisfaction, the need to upgrade inservice teachers, and budget reductions—serve to compound university problems. Both institutions are hampered in the facility of their response to these problems by an entrenched bureaucracy in their own institutions and in the state government.

In such a state of affairs both the schools and the universities are looking within themselves to find sources of revitalization while they timorously poke their heads outside seeking a friendly face or a willing ally. The purpose of this discussion is to examine the potential, problems, and promise of the College of Education and Public Schools looking to each other, not to find succor, but rather to explore specific avenues of cooperation in the education-teacher training enterprise that will offer potential solutions to the similar problems of both parties.

Universities such as The University of Massachusetts and Harvard have gained some attention by taking a basically anti-

school posture and setting out to problem-solve. Their approach seems to reflect the attitude that most attempts at finding solutions to education's problems have failed and that attempts should be made to change the entire system.[1] It would seem that such an ambitious endeavor would not only seek to alter the basic framework of public education but must also seek means to reconstruct much of the value system inherent in the nation's social and cultural patterns that the public schools largely reflect.

Whether one agrees or disagrees with this manner of responding to the problems of education, it does represent one way that a College of Education can legitimize its role in the eyes of the university at large, the state, the nation, and the schools. Certainly, any response that a College of Education makes to current problems must not only seek solutions to problems but must also have potential for legitimizing the role of the College and thereby guaranteeing its continued existence. It is to be hoped, however, that whatever direction a College of Education elects to take, it will lead to a closer relationship and greater involvement with the schools and communities in the teacher training-education enterprise rather than widening the gulf that has traditionally separated us. It is certainly to be questioned whether an attempt to radically overhaul the entire educational system will do anything to narrow the gulf.

That a gulf has traditionally existed between the schools and universities in teacher training can be supported. The education of teachers is controlled by universities and the state, who jointly establish a prescribed program of courses that a prospective teacher must complete to be inducted into the profession. Both the professional staffs of public schools and the students (public school and university) have little or no control over or involvement in formal programs for training teachers, save for a brief student teaching stint.

Perhaps the issue that has served most to separate the schools and universities is the theory-practice dichotomy that is white-haired with age. Traditionally, a student is provided a theoretical orientation to teaching with little or no exposure to practice, and is given a brief practical experience without benefit of theory.[2]

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[1]Henry S. Resnick, "Are There Better Ways to Teach Teachers," *Saturday Review,* (March 4, 1972), p. 46-50.

[2]Edward T. Ladd, *The Teacher's Handbook* (Glenview: Scott Foresman and Company, 1971, p. 4-15.

While education faculties legitimize their roles by laying claim to a body of professional knowledge and theory that is peculiarly their own, public schools are accused of discrediting the importance of theory in order to prepare the student for the "real world" of the classroom.

While there may be a small group of individuals with enough sensitivity, perception, and commitment to become superior teachers without benefit of a sound background of professional coursework and theory, it is unreasonable to believe that one can learn to teach strictly by doing. It is equally unreasonable to believe that superior teachers can be developed when training is largely provided in the cauum of a university classroom. It is, however, reasonable to say that universities have been too far removed from schools and have inadequately prepared teachers for live kids and real situations, and that both the schools and universities have not fully developed a mature and valid concept of what learning is and what teaching ought to be. It is also reasonable to say that the schools have removed themselves from the universities and have failed to capitalize on the successes that the universities have had in conceptualizing teaching and learning.

It is not only the theory-practice dilemma that has kept universities and schools apart, but also the bureaucratic nature of both institutions and the state. Both schools and universities are guilty of processing preservice and inservice teachers and of not allowing for much deviation. The university, on one hand, processes different students through basically the same program, while the schools treat teachers as interchangeable parts as if they came from the same mold. For its part, the state has legitimized the mold by establishing and maintaining rigid requirements for certification. None of these approaches allows for much deviation or inspires extensive cooperation between schools and universities. However, the growing autonomy of colleges and departments within the university and the move toward decentralization among the schools augurs well for cooperative efforts. The state, too, is giving every indication of loosening its grip on preservice programs.

Perhaps we have reached a time when the theory-practice dilemma and the problems of bureaucratization are not only white-haired with age but are bald and infertile grounds for keeping us apart any longer. We must respond to the pressures around us and must recognize the contribution that each party can make

to the teacher training-education enterprise and seek close collaborative effort.

The press for a new approach comes not only from tightened budgets and the Board of Higher Education. The press comes also from once quiet students seeking for relevance in their training, from teachers with an increased sense of their own professionalism seeking control of their profession, from a civil rights movement that recognizes that effective teaching requires intimate contact with real situations, from a widening interest in education as a national problem of highest priority, and, perhaps the most important pressure of all, from the education profession itself that is gaining a growing sense of identity and a maturity that allows itself to put aside vested interest and seek cooperation among its many branches.

If such pressures are not sufficient, one has only to look at the "Summary of Action Objectives" published by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois. According to these objectives, within four or five years:

1. teacher preparation programs will include direct observation and participation experiences in all four undergraduate years,

2. all faculty responsible for teacher training will teach at least one-half time for one term in an elementary or secondary school,

3. all preparation programs will include a one year internship, and

4. certification will be largely performance based.

While these objectives have not materialized, they do indicate direction. Fortunately, there are Colleges of Education, such as at the University of Illinois, who are moving toward earlier and more extensive opportunities for observation and participation and who are seeking avenues of cooperation with public schools in teacher education. An example of such cooperative effort is the semester-long student teaching program conducted jointly by the College of Education and High School District 214 and several of its elementary feeder schools in Chicago's northwest suburbs. In this program preservice teachers have a greater opportunity for extended

observation and practice and are exposed to a greater variety of district and community resources than is the case in the traditional student teaching block.

The practice teacher in this program is also exposed to a greater range of teacher personalities, styles, methods, buildings, and administrators. He is allowed considerable latitude in selecting experiences and has a choice of cooperating teachers during the extended student teaching period. At the same time, the student is offered professional and foundation course work conducted jointly by university and school district personnel. This provides a means of making course work relevant to practical experience and also allows the student to measure his practice and observation of other teachers against some concept of what learning is and what teaching ought to be. Such a setting provides a laboratory in which both students and university personnel can collaborate with public school personnel to test the competence of previous training and to bridge the gap between theory and practice and between knowledge needed for teaching and knowledge gained in course work. Student teaching then becomes an encounter that is fraught with potential not only for the student but also for the university and the local district.

If we view a cooperative program in teacher training only for the potential benefit for preservice teachers, we overlook the tremendous benefits the cooperation has for the other parties involved.

One of the greatest problems of the local schools is to find ways of providing revitalization, renewed commitment, and upgraded training for inservice teachers and administrators. Involvement of administrators and teachers in the teacher training enterprise, both as supervisors and instructors, holds great potential for supplying a renewed and vital sense of professional commitment. Working with preservice teachers and universities provides inservice teachers and administrators new insights into learning, into student behavior, into student-teacher relationships, and generally provides a widened perspective of the education process. Teachers, administrators, and professors experience a sense of unity that can provide direction and revitalization. There is already some evidence of this in the brief two year experience of cooperative efforts between the University of Illinois and District 214 and its feeder elementary districts.

In addition to these intangible benefits such as revitalization and a sense of union, there are also some very tangible beneifts

that accrue to the public schools. Operating under a staff sharing concept, school districts can take advantage of university personnel in attempting to provide inservice training and staff development. At a time when the schools are faced with a myriad of instructional and organizational alternatives, university input is an invaluable resource. As schools look toward open classrooms, individualized instruction, interdepartmental teams, differentiated staffing, learning centers, multi-aged grouping, systems analysis, management by objectives, and a host of other alternatives the university offers a source of direction and a means of retraining teachers. A union of school and university personnel would enable us to consolidate gains made from successful practice and to explore and try promising new alternatives.

Cooperative programs could move us away from the view of teacher education as a one shot dose of training prior to professional entry and could direct us toward a view of teacher training as a continuous process of improving professional performance. A continuous program of training would bring schools and universities together in diagnosing specific needs of teachers and prescribing programs of growth. The traditional pattern of campus and extension course work is not appropriate for a program of continuous growth aimed at meeting the unique needs of an individual teacher or administrator.

Universities will benefit not only from developing new models of preservice and inservice teacher training, but will also have access to a vast laboratory in which to test the effectiveness of previous training and application of theory. There is a tremendous need for action research that could be accomplished by a cooperative effort. We lack objective information on which to base educational decisions. For example, what are the cognitive and/or affective consequences of alternate patterns of classroom organization? The university could make a major contribution and find a source of revitalization by taking advantage of the research opportunities available in a cooperative program of teacher training. An opportunity to move toward a performance based teacher education program, if the university deems it desirable, would be readily available in a cooperative program.

In spite of the optimistic attitude expressed to this point, there are real problems in public school-university collaboration in teacher training. Obviously, money is and will continue to be a stumbling block. Both institutions have to be willing to commit staff in order to sustain any cooperative effort. The problem, how-

ever, may not be a lack of funds as much as it is a lack of commitment to finding new models of teacher education and seeking a creative use of resources to respond to the new model. Using a staff sharing concept where local school personnel assume many of the supervisory and instructional aspects of teacher training would do much to release university personnel to undertake the continuous training of inservice teachers. The use of student teaching stipends, the use of interns to release teachers, and the use of tuition fee waivers should be examined for their potential contribution to such a program. The current cooperative teacher training project between the University of Illinois and several northwest suburban school districts has operated successfully for two years without expansion of normal funding. The financial problems are not so great that they can't be overcome by a commitment of both parties to seeking creative ways of using available resources.

Such commitment and creativity will require a considerable degree of flexibility. The schools and the universities will have to find new ways to deploy personnel and arrange schedules and facilities. The university will have to seek an alternate to basing a curriculum and a budget on the traditional assortment of course units offered.

The promise of public school and university collaboration is great and should provide sufficient motivation to seek commitment and creative action. Under such a program one can envision a continuous pattern of teacher education beginning early in a child's schooling and extending through university and preservice training and continuing far into the professional career of a teacher. One can envision the creation of differentiated and specialized roles for teachers and administrators requiring retraining. One can envision teacher education taking on a medical model where inservice teachers, retrained specialists, and university personnel are deeply involved in a cooperative effort of providing course work and guiding intern teachers and resident teachers prior to full professional entry. One can envision year long internships and residencies and the establishment of local cooperative clinics as a means of coordination and as a means of physically housing students, staff, and materials.

Such a vision will be clouded if the public schools view this as an attempt of the university to encroach on their traditional prerogatives, or if the university interprets collaboration as a takeover of its role in teacher training. At this time what is needed is a

cooperative effort to revitalize the education process, not a retreat to protect vested interests.

There are resources that a university has and things that a university does well that are its special province and not readily available in local schools. There are also abilities and resources available in the schools not immediately available to the university.

The purpose of this discussion was to point to the potential, problems, and promise of pooling these resources in a cooperative approach to the teacher training-education process. The University of Illinois and a few others have, not timorously, but bravely poked their heads out of the door and have sought and established cooperative arrangements with public schools. The two years of experience of such cooperation have indicated that cooperation is both practical and fruitful.

It is to be hoped that through collaboration the schools and the universities can find solutions to the similar problems that they face. Perhaps through such cooperation we can expand Whitehead's aim of education as producing students "who know something well and can do something well" and add to it those who *continue* to do something well.

AN ALTERNATIVE TO SELF – CONTAINED SPECIAL EDUCATION CLASSES

James E. Ysseldyke and David A. Sabatino

Professors Ysseldyke and Sabatino report on the external forces that are pushing administrators and special educators to examine the assumptions that have traditionally been used in developing self-contained special education classrooms. In so doing, they clearly indicate the necessity for special educators in all areas to establish and empirically investigate the feasibility of creating alternatives to special classes. As an example, the authors provide a step-by-step model for the development of resource rooms as one alternative to the self-contained classroom. All in all, a useful and interesting discussion for all concerned educators. Professors Ysseldyke and Sabatino are both on the staff at Pennsylvania State University and members of the rural unit of the National Regional Resource Center of Pennsylvania.

Self-contained special education classes have failed to increase academic achievement through the individualization of instruction tailored to "meet the needs" of the children they serve (Elenbogen, 1957; Cassidy & Stanton, 1959; Thurstone, 1960; Johnson, 1962; Bennett, 1963; Sparks & Blackman, 1965). Special education classes, established primarily in an effort to relieve regular class teachers from the burden of teaching handicapped youngsters, were designed under the faulty assumption that categorically defined handicapped children are best served by homogeneous instructional techniques and materials. We in special education certainly realize by now that labels borrowed from medicine which we have converted into administratively convenient categories lend very little to the type of instruction we provide children. There is no instructional homogeneity in most classes of educable mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, brain injured and learning disabled children. Special classes may be more aptly described as instructional nightmares in which a single teacher is expected to perform an impossible task.

Special educators have only recently begun to search for creative alternatives to self-contained special class placement. Although, in some cases, the movement has been an internal one in

which educators themselves have recognized the lack of justification for existing practices, three external factors appear to have forced a search for alternatives.

The decision of Judge Skelly Wright to declare tracking practices in the Washington, D.C. Schools unconstitutional has forced teachers to a certain extent to differentiate much more clearly between the making of administrative provisions and the employment of appropriate educational practices.

Effective June 18, 1971 the United States District Court for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania ordered, on the behalf of twelve individual retarded children and their parents, that the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania may not deny any mentally retarded child access to a free public program of education and training. It further specified that the Commonwealth has the obligation to place each mentally retarded child in a free public program of education and training appropriate to the child's capacity within the context of the presumption that normal alternative programs of education and training are required by statute to be available; placement in a regular public school class is preferable to placement in a special public school class; and placement in a special public school class is preferable to placement in any other type of program. The most far-reaching aspect of the decision provides for a due-process hearing to contest any placement decision. Before a child may be moved from a regular class to a special class it is necessary first that the parent or guardian be given notice and that an opportunity for a due-process hearing is provided. Before a child is moved from a special class to homebound instruction, tuition reimbursement for attendance at a private school, or to an institution, it is necessary first that the child and his parents or guardian have the opportunity for a hearing. At the hearing the parent has the right to examine all the school records of the child. Prior to the hearing, the parent has the right to an independent evaluation of the child, the right to be represented by any person of his choosing to present such evidence as the parent may wish to present, and to examine any official judgments which may be germane to the matter in question.

The implications of this decision are already being clearly felt in Pennsylvania and are certain to extend to other parts of the nation. The court order requires a zero-reject system of education and a fitting of education to the child. School personnel no longer may hide behind the mystique of closed cumulative records and unintelligible psychological reports recommending special class

placement. Educational placement and programming must be justifiable and defendable.

Third, and an equally potent force, has been the fact that administration of special education programs costs money. Self-contained classes have been developed at a significant increase in school per capita expenditures, while serving only limited numbers of children. It is very doubtful that schools can continue to provide enough space or funding to place the large number of children with special instructional needs into special classes.

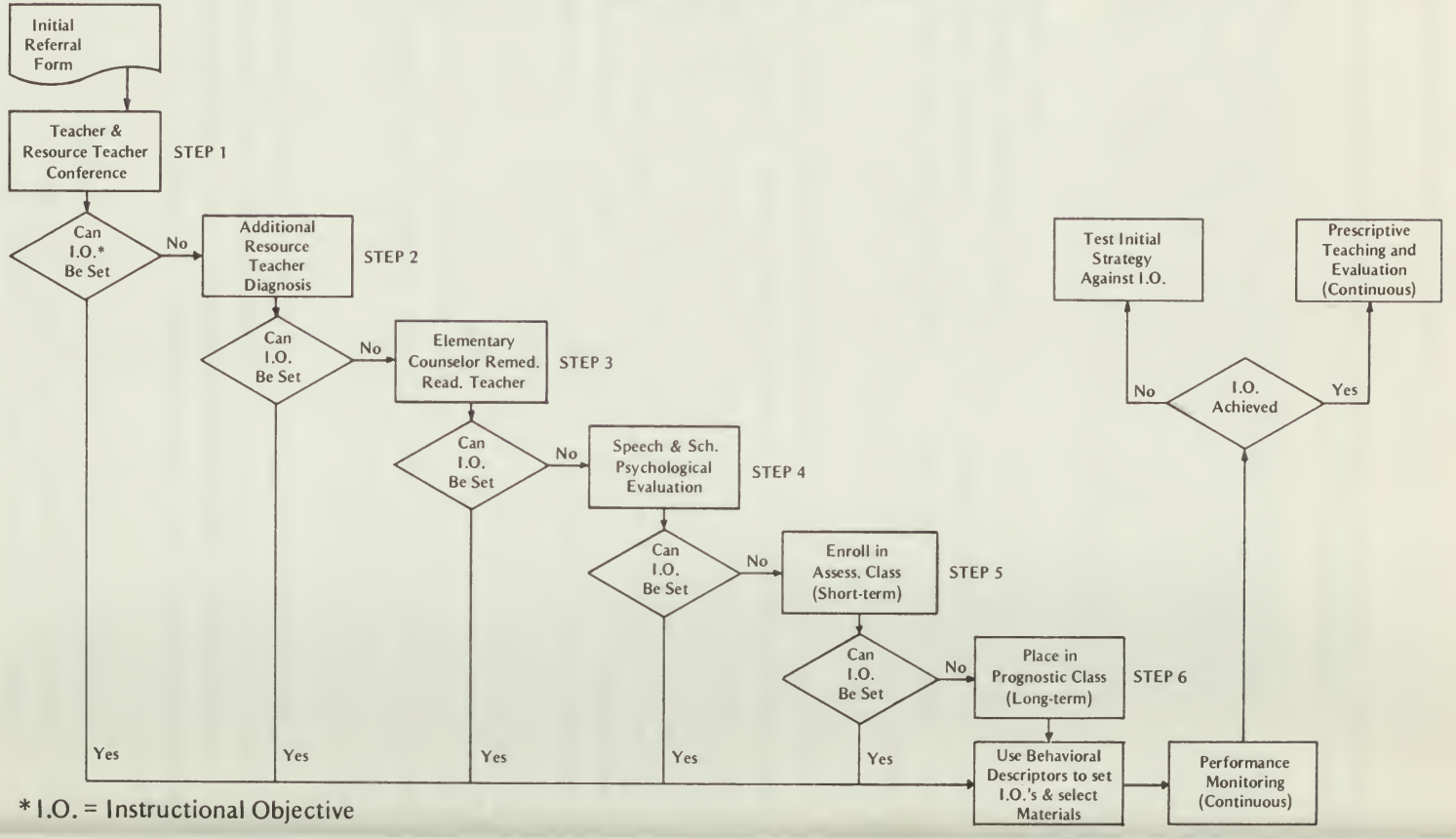
The task confronting special educators in all areas—school psychologists, speech and hearing personnel, elementary guidance personnel, reading specialists, and special education teachers—is one of establishing and empirically investigating the feasibility of creative alternatives to special classes. This paper discusses resource rooms as one such alternative.

The model described in this paper draws upon many of the themes being discussed in special education circles. It clarifies the use of resource teachers and special education material specialists working in varying delivery settings and teaching environments. The model is currently being used by the rural unit of the National Regional Resource Center of Pennsylvania. Psychoeducational diagnosticians and resource teachers have been employed to (1) assess specific behaviors (abilities) in an effort to ascertain learner characteristics and establish specific instructional objectives for individual children, (2) prescribe instructional methods and materials to meet those objectives, and (3) continuously monitor children's progress, validate objectives, and validate the methods and materials used to meet these objectives. Figure 1 is a graphic illustration of the steps involved in the diagnostic prescriptive procedures used.

The first question a teacher must ask when confronted with a child who is experiencing learning disabilities concerns his ability to perform specific behavioral acts necessary to the acquisition of academic material. Step 1 is the point of initiation for all future activities.

A comprehensive instructional-task form of referral has been developed which contains items grouped under at least the following six categories that any regular or special class teacher can use

Figure 1: Six step sequential model for NRRC/P Rural Unit



*I.O. = Instructional Objective

to determine those behaviors or academic skills related to the identification of learning disability:

(1) Visual and auditory perception
(2) Short term retention
(3) Long term retention
(4) Academic Achievement
(5) Language and motor speech
(6) Classroom adjustment

Each item on the referral form is designed to describe a behavior (ability) or academic skill that the teacher can check according to an appropriate grade level equivalent. Each item or behavioral descriptor is accompanied by an example which serves to operationally define the behavior the teacher is to observe.

The teacher referral is required before the resource teachers can officially begin work with a child. On the basis of the results of the referral and subsequent discussion with the referring teacher, the activities in Step 1 may lead directly to formulation of instructional objectives based on the behavioral descriptors ascertained from the teacher referral.

Step 2 requires the resource teacher to initiate her screening battery which attempts to measure the same behaviors as those observed on the teacher referral in Figure 1. If an appropriate instructional objective can be established on the basis of such an assessment, that is, if specific strengths and weaknesses can be delineated and isolated for instruction, all further activities between the resource teacher and referring teacher are oriented to validation of objectives and establishment of a continuously monitored curriculum designed to modify the behaviors specified.

Step 3 utilizes other personnel who are normally located in the school, such as the remedial reading teacher and elementary counselor. Special diagnostic test batteries which attempt to permit further identification or at least confirmation of the child's problems will be constructed for inclusion as a preplanned package to be tested on the demonstration site. The purpose is to bring together everyone in an elementary school building working on learning difficulties in order that they may (1) support the regular or special class teacher referring the child, (2) learn how to identify and prescribe at some level for learning disabled children, or (3) refer those for whom they cannot plan an instructional objective to the next level. One rather exact criticism of special

educators is they function far too frequently in isolation. The system designed in this model eliminates such isolationism.

If an appropriate instructional objective cannot be established in Step 3, the resource teacher refers to other school personnel not normally assigned to the building but who operate in the district, such as school psychologists and speech therapists. This team, operating under the assumption that several heads are better than one, intensify the search for those diagnostic keys that promise to open the door to the learning or behavioral disability. A standard battery has been designed and packaged for use by this team.

If specific strengths and weaknesses cannot be identified in Step 4 which would allow the establishment of appropriate instructional objectives, the child may be referred to a comprehensive diagnostic teaching situation on a short term basis. This assessment class may be assigned to local schools on a full time basis being moved to other locations. Due to the space problems in most rural schools, a portable assessment trailer staffed by two master teachers is used for this purpose.

Step 6 is a long term diagnostic class, or prognostic class. In both the assessment class or the prognostic class the children are seen by two master teachers. The group size is limited to five children. The main difference between the two classes is in duration of stay, a child usually remaining in the assessment class no longer than 6 weeks and in the prognostic class no longer than 6 months. The purpose in both cases is to return the child to the regular class with prescriptively assigned instructional materials. The child's progress toward specific instructional objectives using these prescriptively assigned materials is then continuously monitored by the resource teacher in that building.

Throughout this step-by-step sequential process, data on what children fail academically or why they fail is systematically collected. Baseline data, collected through massive screening of all children in the demonstration buildings, will not only permit evaluative comparisons of treatment programs, but extend to longitudinal survey and screening of all children to ascertain ways in which prevention can be implemented through early detection of those abilities, behaviors, or subskills that predictively lead to learning difficulties.

The key to the entire model is continuous monitoring of student progress toward specific objectives. The continuous monitoring is in terms of the frequencies at which specific behaviors (for example, number of single digit addition problems completed) are

demonstrated. This, in turn, allows us to validate the appropriateness of both our objectives and the methods and materials used to attain them. Education has traditionally proceeded in a haphazard manner in its attempts to develop curricula. This haphazardness has been amplified in attempts to provide individualized prescriptive instruction for handicapped children. Only by carefully and compulsively recording changes in student behavior as a function of changes in the materials or techniques we prescribe can we move forward technologically and theoretically. That forward movement will result when we reject labelling, categorization and resultant pigeon-holing in favor of sound psychoeducational planning; when we reject hypothetical constructs and unverifiable causes, looking instead at the specific behaviors involved in the learning process; and when we evaluate our procedures and attempt to validate the curricular decisions we make for handicapped children.

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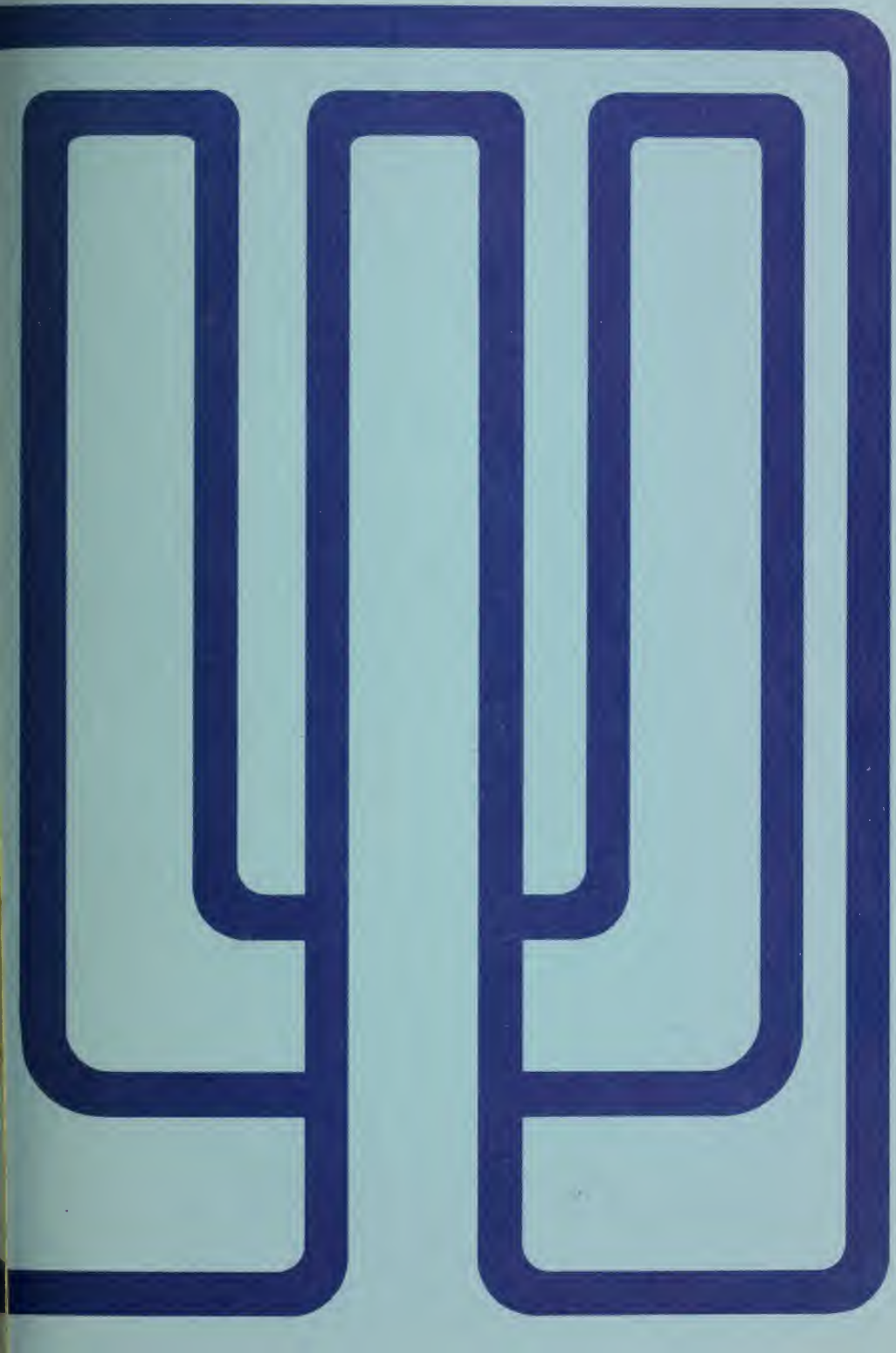

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J. MYRON ATKIN, DEAN

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AN EDITORIAL COMMENT

We feel quite happy with the quality of the articles included in this issue of the *Illinois Education Review*. They seem to adhere closely to the primary purpose of the *Review*, which is to provide high level, meaningful pieces on topics in education that are relevant to all people involved in the educational enterprise regardless of their organizational level or their subject area. We think the six articles in this issue meet that particular criterion; try them all, we are sure you will find them stimulating and useful.

With the publication of this issue of the *Illinois Education Review*, we complete our second year of activity in our efforts to improve the quantity and the quality of our communication with and service to educators outside the College of Education. The past two years have been both rewarding and frustrating to us as a result of our efforts. On the rewarding side, we have provided some assistance to approximately 1500 people who have participated in our workshop activities. We also have received considerable positive feedback from our alumni as to our newsletters and *the Review*. On the more frustrating side, we have found ourselves hampered in our attempts to undertake several major efforts because of a lack of financial and human resources. We have also experienced a growing frustration because of a notable tendency on our part to generate more ideas than we have the time, the resources, or the competence to implement.

The first of these frustrations we hope to partially overcome by soliciting the financial assistance of our alumni. Consequently, early this fall a mailing will be sent to all our alumni seeking their support for our efforts to expand and improve our service activities. We have high hopes that everyone will respond with at least some contribution no matter how small it may be.

The second frustration seems to be easing as we have become more experienced and, as it has worked out, more realistic as to just where our priorities should be in regard to the various kinds of activities that can be part of an effective and efficient service program. We are looking forward to the next few years with every expectation that they will be mutually beneficial to our alumni, to the educational practitioner in the field, and to this College of Education.

T. McGreal
D. Wiseman

TEACHERS' DILEMMA

J. Myron Atkin

The following article is adapted from the Annual Education Review section of the New York Times for January 8, 1973. Through this brief paper Dr. Atkin traces some of the current problems and strategies associated with educational changes in American public schools. He further comments on the constraints of this change as it relates to the classroom, the community, and in the minds of those concerned with the betterment of our educational system. As Dr. Atkin clearly points out, changes in this area are often not sufficiently dramatic enough for some and yet too dramatic for others. Dr. Atkin is presently the Dean of the University of Illinois College of Education at Urbana-Champaign.

Anyone who has served in American elementary or secondary schools during the last fifteen years must be punchy by now from the continual jabs directed at the educational system since the late 1950's. In 1957, the Soviet Union launched Sputnik I and seemed on its way to control of space. If only the U.S. had more rigorous and focussed basic education, teachers were told, it would not have been number two. Beefing up the educational system by emphasizing the training of talented mathematicians and scientists became a top national priority. With funds provided through the National Defense Education Act, school people turned anxiously but conscientiously toward the implementation of new programs developed by professors.

By the early 1960's, however, the attention of the public turned abruptly to a different set of problems — this time poverty and racial discrimination. Again the schools were singled out for attention, both as contributory to a sorry condition and also as a necessary vehicle for the solution. With funds provided now by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, teachers and school administrators began to respond as best they could.

But by the late 1960's, a new educational crisis was identified. This time it was joylessness. Schools were grim and dehumanizing. They had to become more "open" to encourage spontaneity and expressiveness.

In 1973, teachers might be accorded sympathy if they appear gun shy while awaiting the newest barrages from

those who see sexism in the classroom, insensitivity to environmental deterioration in the curriculum, or callousness about degradation of the Indian in certain textbooks. They might be granted special compassion if they sometimes fret over their diminished self-esteem.

The dilemma of the teaching profession is profound. On the one hand it is exhorted by influential writers to recognize and ameliorate whatever vexing social problem happens to stir the passions of the intellectual community at the moment, and each problem is serious indeed. On the other hand, surveys report consistently that more parents want the schools to instill discipline. Teachers and administrators in the range of ordinary American schools realize from daily experiences with parents, legislators, and school board members that the educational system is expected by most of the public to be an instrument of conservatism, an agency that affirms the conventional values.

Regardless of the desirability of reform, schools are not able to change as rapidly as most hortatory writers wish, nor are they as pliable as critics would have the public believe. There are well over two million teachers in American schools. They are employed by more than 17,000 separate governing foundations and the government can't alter practice quickly given the size of the system and its basic format. Indeed most parents in any decade find the schools quite recognizable as they recall their own experiences as children. The inertia in the system is sizable, for which fact we might be grateful. If schools changed with the fashions of the *New York Times* or of the foundations, it is not at all clear they would enjoy even the public support they receive today.

A more charitable view of our schools than the one usually reflected in the popular press would detect steady if slow improvement in the quality of instruction over the past fifteen years. Science books are better written and more up-to-date. The literature children read in many schools is challenging and contemporary. The non-print materials children handle are better designed and more conducive to independent learning. School architecture is often imaginative and inviting. There are more adult aides in the schools, accenting a gradual trend toward greater individualization. Teachers, in general, are more skillful.

Few breakthroughs. Perhaps serious backsliding here and there. But discernible progress, nevertheless. Exactly where does the educational system work and where doesn't it? Is

there some approach to educational change that avoids solely a succession of convulsive and guilty reactions to the shifting fads featured in the Sunday supplements?

The popular picture of educational progress in the United States is something like the following: A problem is identified — say the inadequate training of scientists. A talented group is given funds from the federal government or a private foundation to address the problem, usually by creating a new program. With the aid of earmarked money, the universities begin to instruct teachers in the new curriculum. The results are thereby "disseminated" to the profession. The model is something like the implementation of innovations in agriculture or medicine. Research is conducted to increase crop yield or cure a disease. Procedures are developed to put the results of research into practice. Agricultural extension agents, seed salesmen, or pharmaceutical detail men carry the good word to the practitioner, and everyone benefits.

Millions of dollars have been spent to apply the model to education. But the results are meager, and the public's sense of crisis about the schools has not diminished. We might profit by some reflection before we invest still more money.

First off, let's ask if we can use a model in which it is assumed that educational practice is or can be based to a significant degree on scientific knowledge. It is one thing to discover through research that children learn long division quickly when given dimes immediately after each correct response, then spread the word to the schools. It is quite another matter for a teacher to choose to use such a procedure. It is still a different decision facing the teacher to teach long division in place of French or art. To an even greater extent than in agriculture or medicine, schools deal with local tastes and values. An educational practice deemed effective and desirable in a ghetto school may seem inappropriate or even abhorrent in the suburbs.

There are deep conflicts in most communities, and the schools are a battleground. But perhaps they are poor arenas for resolving social conflict, and in fact this role may hamper the educational system for doing those things it may do best. The educational system is not likely to change significantly until we make a realistic appraisal of what we are talking about; it is not likely to change dramatically without modifying the following boundary conditions:

(a) The way an overwhelming majority of people see schools as a conserving influence.

(b) The present ratio of teachers to children in the way we staff our schools.

(c) The employment of teachers with the characteristics of those now choosing the profession.

Since these constraints are not likely to disappear, we might better achieve educational reforms by bending the system rather than attacking or ignoring it. Perhaps we can identify attractive modifications presently surfacing within the schools — for whatever reasons — and plan our strategies for change by capitalizing on these influences. Teachers are organizing aggressively. How can this energy be turned partially toward curriculum reform? Exemplary classroom practices arise here and there. How can they be identified and nurtured? Creative administrators in several localities have successfully handled problems that seem intractable elsewhere. How can this program be better understood and have broader meaning?

Such an approach to educational change may not be sufficiently dramatic for some tastes. But real change in education probably looks prosaic over short time periods. Perhaps we need perspectives that are sensitive to evolutionary progress and to serendipity, rather than ones which detect only momentary excitement or pre-specified (but probably short-lived) changes. Such strategies might identify modest variations in the system and assess their adaptive qualities over a suitably long period of time.

American schools, like many of our institutions, need stability as much as they need reform. It is the combination of the two that represents the soundest planning and policy as we make decisions about the future.

ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING OUTCOMES

J. Thomas Hastings

The following article was taken from a 1969 Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) publication, The Supervisor: New Demands, New Dimensions. In this paper Professor Hastings gives a number of evaluative schemata appropriate to his view of the responsibilities of the supervisor as an appraiser of learning outcomes. These different evaluative programs call for the supervisor to have, among other competencies, an expertise for evaluating within different school settings; the ability to evaluate within varied disciplines; and the ability to work with and coordinate evaluation teams operating under broad perspectives. Dr. Hastings is the Director of the Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation (CIRCE) at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

For years supervisors have been evaluating educational endeavors, from personnel to programs, from students to curricula, from specific teaching acts to rather complicated organizational structures. Let me quickly add that I could have put with equal verity almost any other noun referring to generalized roles of those interested in education in that sentence in the place of the word *supervisors*. Evaluation is carried on by teachers, pupils, parents, boards of education, and congressmen. Evaluation in one general sense of the word is truly ubiquitous and probably will remain so. One of the reasons we have so many different evaluations by so many different people is that the educational establishment has not been extremely serious, nor has society at large, about systematic and replicable evaluation.

Evaluation — the Current Climate

In the past few years, however, we have seen a real urgency about and a ferment in evaluation. The increase in expenditures for organized course-content improvement, curriculum-development projects, and Title III ventures has been tremendous. Top scholars in various disciplines, as well as leading educationists, have been heavily involved in the development and reorganization of courses, curricula, methods,

and materials. I need not remind readers in the schools that somehow or other the local decision to adopt textbook A as opposed to textbook B was never quite so prominent, so noticed, and so crowded with real feelings as has been the decision as to whether to adopt the fruits of nationally known curriculum project X or nationally known curriculum project Y. Pressures for some kind of believable evaluation has varied directly with the increase in prominence and expenditures. Suffice it to say that all of us realize, or should realize, that evaluation within the school is one of the important realities.

As usual, the *supervisor* is looked to for real help in connection with this reality. It is quite true that others are being asked to do something about it also. For example, curriculum project directors on a national level, with private or federal funds, are expected to take evaluation seriously. Also, the classroom teacher is expected to know more about and be more objective in evaluation. Yet especially in this latter case, the *supervisor* is expected to give the leadership for the classroom teachers.

The title of this paper is "Assessment of Learning Outcomes." I promise to delineate some of the skills and the competencies required for a supervisor in the role of assessor of learning outcomes. Although I intend to do just that to the best of my ability, I find that for my own peace of mind, whether for that of the reader or not, I simply must start with a framework for the larger context of evaluation of educational endeavors — a framework in which the assessment of learning outcomes has a meaningful part. It is my contention that the supervisor and other educational personnel — from the national curriculum developer to the classroom teacher and from the administrator to the outside consultant — must be aware of this *larger* concern of educational evaluation. Also — and I hope my later words will support my contention — I doubt seriously that any supervisor can have real expertise in all of the facets of the assessment of learning outcomes, let alone in all of the complex endeavors of educational evaluation.

If the school is to take evaluation seriously, specialized personnel will have to be used — as staff or as consultants. The main skills of the supervisor in this area, as I believe they are in many areas, will encompass a knowledge of the *sources* of expertise needed, a familiarity *in a general way* with many of the *skills*, and an ability to coordinate the team

which works upon assessment of learning outcomes and evaluation.[1]

An Expanded Concept of Evaluation

Educational evaluation is aimed at an increase in rationality of decisions which affect the establishment. Educational evaluation consists of description on the one hand and judgment on the other. The more reliable the description, the better. The more that we know about *who* makes *what* judgments about *what* descriptions with *what* standards, the better.

For many years educational evaluation was talked about in terms of learning outcomes only. In the past four or five years there have been a number of papers which have broadened this concept considerably. One important picture of the larger context of evaluation was presented by Robert E. Stake. Figure 1 is an adaptation of Stake's schema for the data to be collected in educational evaluation. The various cells of this matrix have further subdivisions. For example, in the cell formed by the row called *antecedents* and the column called *intents* we think of student antecedents, such as aptitude scores, interests, motivations — but we also could have antecedents for the teacher: his training, interests, and educational viewpoints. In addition, we might have antecedents concerning the relationships among disciplines within the school. *Transactions* (the second row) have to do with instrumental evaluation — the teaching-learning treatments. In connection with a classroom, they encompass the verbal and nonverbal behaviors of the teacher and the relationships between these and the actions and reactions of the students. The *outcomes row* includes what we usually think of as learning outcomes on the part of the student; but it also encompasses other kinds of outcomes, from teacher to school. In all three of these — antecedents, transactions, and outcomes — Stake would have us gather information on the intentions, the observations of the actual thing, the standards

[1] A list of selected references appears at the end of this paper and includes those articles and studies to which I shall refer to only by a person's name. I also have put in that list references to other articles which I shall not mention in this presentation but which I hope some readers will consult in their movement forward in this altering role.

which are used variously by various people, and the judgments which are available.

Intents	Observations	Standards	Judgments
	ANTECEDENTS		
	TRANSACTIONS		
Student learning	OUTCOMES		

(Adapted from: Robert E. Stake. "The Countenance of Educational Evaluation." *Teachers College Record* 68: 523-40; April 1967).

Figure 1. Evaluation: Data To Be Collected

If we think of this paper in relationship to this broad schema of educational evaluation presented by Stake, my main focus is to deal with the first two cells in the third row, and then only with the student. In other words, we are basically concerned now with a small part of the total scope — intended student-learning outcomes and observed student-learning outcomes. To miss the point that these learning outcomes are part of a larger framewwrk would amount to a real lack of competence on the part of the supervisor.

Assessment of student outcomes is no less important, but the task is set in a larger context. A plan of attack which most of us in education have heard most about and which is described most frequently in textbooks of the past 25 years is the model developed by Ralph W. Tyler some 33 years ago. The model is based on thinking which goes something like this: If education is anything at all, it is a process of changing behaviors, that is, of increasing an individual's response repertoire. Through education the student can respond to various stimuli (from simple to very complex) in ways in which we could *not previously* respond. The steps to be taken in evaluation within this framework are represented in Figure 2.

First, one *states the objectives* of the instructional unit with which he is concerned. For example: "The student will understand linear relationships" or "The individual will take into account various factors in voting." The second step is

that of stating objectives such as these in terms of *behavioral outcomes*: What precisely does a person do when he does understand relationships? What factors does he take into account, and how does he take them into account when exhibiting voting behavior? This step demands that one must translate such covert behaviors as "understanding" or "taking into account" into observable responses to known stimuli or situations. The third step in the approach is that of *stating the situations* which will call forth the behaviors demanded by the definitions. It is at this point that the model has been used most frequently to set up test items which purportedly call for the behavior desired.

The fourth step in this total process is one of devising means of *recording the responses* identified with the situations. Obviously, in a regular test-format, the student does his own recording. It might be, however, that the situation is such that an external observer would be doing the recording. Tyler certainly does not limit the behaviors only to those which can be expressed through paper-and-pencil tests. The fifth step is that of devising some means of combining or *summarizing responses* in order to make interpretative statements about the behavioral changes which have taken place. The final step is that of assessing the extent to which the original objectives have been met.

1. Stating objective	To apply the principle of . . .
2. Translating to behavioral terms	When presented with a new problem involving . . .
3. Situation (stimulus) to call for behavior	Presented with a problem in the laboratory and materials . . .
4. Recording responses	Observer uses check list and notes actions of student . . .
5. Summarizing information	Figure percentage of correct, incorrect, and irrelevant moves . . .
6. Comparing result of 5 with expected 1.	Over samples/with other students/with pretreatment measure/ . . .

(Adapted from Eugene R. Smith and Ralph W. Tyler. *Appraising and Recording Student Progress.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942).

Figure 2. Steps From Objectives to Appraisal

In brief, the force of this particular approach is to encourage those developing instruction to attempt to be explicit about the changes in behavior they are trying to bring about in the students. It has helped throughout the total establishment of education to focus attention upon the fact that instruction consists of both *content* and *behavior*. Supervisors of instruction and local curriculum developers definitely should gain some skill in using this approach in their attempts at assessment of learning outcomes. Perhaps even more important, they should gain that kind of command of the process which allows them to help teachers to think of both instruction and assessment in these terms.

This means to me, among other things, that supervisors should collect samples of good translations of objectives into behavioral terms. Besides those which they or their fellow teachers have developed, the sample file should contain examples from both domains of the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*.[2] One will find good examples in several descriptions of ongoing evaluation appearing in books by Paul Dressel and others. Perhaps the classic application of the model was in the Eight-Year Study of Secondary Education; this application is described in a book by Smith and Tyler. A number of current textbooks also have good examples.

Although Tyler's model ties the data-collection part of the evaluation procedure to the objectives, it does not by itself tend to relate interpretation of results to the course procedures or materials. A second model dealing with assessment of outcomes does tie instructional procedure and materials directly to the assessment end. I will refer to this as the Gagné approach, although the ideas appear in quite a number of papers and books dealing with programmed instruction.

Gagné starts the approach with a step seemingly very similar, if not identical, to the first step in Tyler's approach. The person developing the sequence states a *student capability* which is desired. Gagné speaks of these expected student capabilities as "units of content." For example, an expected capability in an elementary school science course or perhaps in a secondary school math course, or elsewhere, might be "ability to distinguish between instances of direct measurement and indirect measurement" — a concept relating technique, object, observation, and inference. Another

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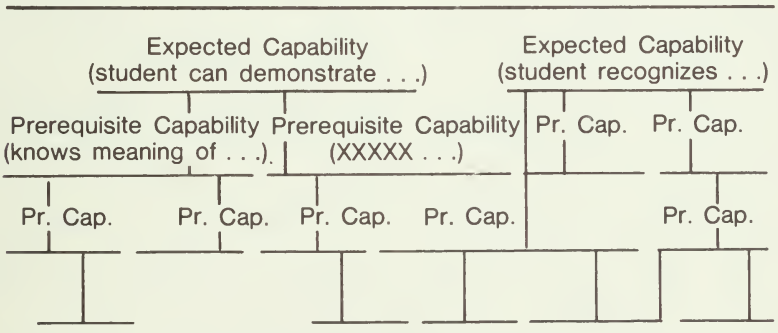
[2] See both Bloom and Krathwohl in the references.

example of an expected capability might be "ability to identify certain physiological functions with particular structures."

Gagné goes on to say that a capability such as this must be stated that it can be acquired under a single set of learning conditions or, in slightly different words, that the learning conditions include certain specified prerequisite capabilities. Figure 3 is merely a schema to illustrate the nature of this model. In connection with the capability concerning indirect measurement, the prerequisite capabilities would include what is meant by inference, the broad meaning and application of observation, and ideas about measurement. In a similar fashion we could write prerequisite capabilities for the original one stated previously for physiology — dealing with function and structure.

Now obviously one could carry this prerequisite demand back to the level of reading or spelling or even of perceiving letters on the page. It would be possible, in effect, to build the curriculum by thinking of these, as Gagné does, as "units of content." The implication of this approach to curriculum development suggests that the developer should start out with a clear statement of some particular capability he expects of the students and then progressively work backward from this to the lower levels of prerequisite capabilities. Any one course would obviously have a number of such threads running through it. Certain prerequisite capabilities would be the same for some of the end performances. My schema in Figure 3 suggests this by representing an intersect of certain prerequisite capabilities.



(Adapted from Robert M. Gagné. "Curriculum Research and Promotion of Learning." *AERA Monograph Series on Curriculum Evaluation,* Volume 1. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1967. Reprinted by permission of author and publisher.)

Figure 3. Curriculum Development-Assessment Scheme

This approach by Gagné focuses upon the *assessment of outcomes* as a matter of testing the effectiveness of the curriculum, the curriculum being the whole pattern of sequential "units of content." The assessment of both the material and the sequence is accomplished by the straightforward method (albeit difficult work) of designing and administering a test which has been especially constructed to yield pass-fail information on *each* capability in the total sequence. Since the content elements of the curriculum — the learning sequence — are already stated as capabilities on the part of the student, one does not have too much further to go in order to develop test items concerning them. Each item is designed to test whether the student *can* or *cannot* exhibit the performance required by each capability in the hierarchy.

Implications for Supervision

Supervisors need to develop the competence of distinguishing instruction for which this model *is* applicable from those sorts of instruction (for example, in the humanities) for which it is less applicable. The supervisor should also develop some skill in the job of task analysis — the stating of the prerequisite capabilities at each level of the hierarchy.

In developing competence and skill with either the Tylerian or the Gagné approach, the supervisor would do well to take a look at a book by Robert F. Mager, *Preparing Objectives for Programmed Instruction*. Mager treats in a very explicit fashion some of the "do's and don't's" in the process of trying to state objectives explicitly in terms of behavior. Figure 4 identifies a couple of the concerns which Mager would have us give to the stating of objectives. The first deals with the use of verbs which are open to many interpretations (and which therefore are somewhat ambiguous) as compared to the use of the words which have fewer interpretations and which therefore suggest acts which can be communicated. For instance, in describing an expected outcome, the use of the phrase "to see the difference between this or that" leads to more operational interpretations than does the expression "to state the difference between." Or again, "to know" is less interpretable than "to identify." The supervisor should become highly aware of his own usage of language in this respect.

Another lesson which Mager stresses is indicated in Figure 4 under the heading of "Stating of Conditions." It

Interpretability of Verbs	
To see the difference between . . .	To state the difference between . . .
To know . . .	To identify . . .
To understand . . .	To select . . .

Stating of Conditions

Given access to appropriate reference books, he should be able to solve . . .

Should be able to differentiate between two meanings of a word *when encountered in context* of . . .

(Adapted from Robert F. Mager. *Preparing Objectives for Programmed Instruction.* Palo Alto, California: Fearon Publishers, 1961.)

Figure 4. Communication of Desired Instructional Outcomes

does make quite a difference as to whether we say that the learner should be able to solve this type of physics problem or whether we say, "Given access to appropriate reference books, he should be able to solve this particular type of problem." Again, to say that a learner should differentiate between the meanings of two words is better communicated if we indicate that the learner is to do this differentiation when the words are in context — or when they are not. The whole purpose of this section of my paper is to indicate that, whether the supervisor is to be the assessor of the outcomes or is to be the leader of a group attempting to assess outcomes, he has a responsibility for gaining some skill with these techniques of stating objectives behaviorally in such a way that they actually communicate operational acts.

Earlier in this paper I referred to a model by Stake which gave a more complete context of evaluation. Also, in an earlier paper I emphasized the need for more information than descriptions of outcomes if one is to make real changes or if one is to make rational decisions about acceptance and rejection of materials and methods. Still another problem that arises when one uses in too constricted a fashion the approaches suggested by Tyler, Gagné, and Mager was expressed very well in an article by J. Myron Atkin in 1963. He pointed out the problems inherent in attempting to state all objectives in behavioral terms *prior* to the *use* of innovative material. Very appropriately, in my estimation, Atkin would have us look carefully for outcomes — both favorable and unfavorable — which were not, and probably could not have been, stated prior to actual use of the materials.

Any reader of this paper who has had experience in a classroom should be able to give his own examples of certain outcomes which were *not* anticipated. Atkin predicts, with a considerable degree of experience and logic, that if one asks developers of new materials to follow the Gagné-Mager procedures, he may end up with outcomes which are purely in the verbal-knowledge category. You have noted, I am sure, that in Stake's model he asks for data to be collected on *intended outcomes*, but he also has a different category for data to be collected on *observed outcomes*. Easley, in a paper which deals with a slightly different topic — educational research — but is very relevant to our concerns, suggests that we need to use methods which allow us to describe carefully, and to analyze, the phenomena of instruction.

Utilizing Data and Ideas from the Disciplines

Figure 5 suggests something that we have learned in our work in CIRCE (Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation) with many different curriculum situations. It is extremely important to look across many disciplines for techniques and points of view which will help us assess the learning outcomes. To date most of the assessment of learning outcomes carried on in the school uses techniques and points of view which come to us out of psychometrics and psychology of learning. Figure 5 suggests that we need desperately to go to other disciplines for their expertise in certain techniques developed for special purposes.

	Psychology	Sociology	Anthropology	Ethology	Philosophy	Economics
Testing skills	X					
Observation schedules	X		X	X		
Questionnaires	X	X			X	
Cost benefit	X				X	X
Analysis	X	X	X	X	X	X

Figure 5. Techniques Helpful in Assessing Learning Outcomes

Ethologists in zoology have used a set of techniques which is sometimes referred to as "living with the animals." When they study the behavior of lions or the behavior of antelopes, they spend long periods making careful observations of the animals in their "natural environment." Supervisory personnel must in some way learn more about the expertise of ethologists if they are to look at learning outcomes which were not originally stated as intended. In a book by Webb and others, one finds excellent coverage of certain techniques which have been developed in all of the behavioral sciences — including history.

The supervisor is the most likely person in the school to perform the role of calling upon experts from various disciplines for appropriate techniques in the collection of data on learning outcomes. The supervisor who is wanting to look at learning outcomes must keep clearly in mind that there are other aspects — transactions and antecedents — without which the outcomes may afford much less than a whole story. I stated near the beginning of this paper that I had some doubts that any one supervisor should be asked or would be able to develop the expertise from each of many disciplines for the fundamental job of assessing outcomes. There are specific skills and competencies which are required of the supervisor in today's educational ferment and its demands on assessing learning outcomes.

Let me summarize by saying he should be highly aware of the newer and broader looks at the total picture of evaluation. He should be able to illustrate some of the techniques described by Tyler, Gagné, and Mager. Equally true, however, is the need for the supervisor to be able to communicate to teachers and to the administration the need for equipment and personnel which will allow him to direct a meaningful assessment of student outcomes. Different supervisors will have somewhat different sets of skills and competencies which they themselves can apply. They must, however, have a number of things in common: a broad understanding of the kinds and sources of data; the variety of roles of evaluation; the kinds of techniques accessible and demanded; and the skills required for persuading teachers, administrators, the citizenry at large, and the policy makers at state and national levels that the assessment of student outcomes must be taken seriously in a context of educational evaluation.

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CLASSROOM RESEARCH BY THE TEACHER: A USEFUL TOOL FOR IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

John C. Eckman

In this article, Dr. Eckman points to the usefulness and the feasibility of classroom research by practicing teachers. He sees it as a vital and practical way for teachers to gain in skills, attitudes, and knowledge through an in-service activity.

In addition to providing a persuasive argument for this approach to in-service education, Dr. Eckman provides examples and suggestions to supervisors who might want to start such programs in their own schools. Dr. Eckman is currently the Chairman of the Department of English at Oak Lawn Community High School in Oak Lawn, Illinois.

For a long time leading educators have called for a major increase in practical research investigations conducted in the classrooms of the nation. Among those who early envisioned the classroom teacher as a principal investigator were Hilda Taba and Stephen Corey. They saw that what should be done in the schools must actually be studied by those who labor in classrooms and who may have to change the way they do things as a result of their research.

In the field of English, William Evans has strongly pointed out the neglect, for purposes of research, of the special talents and opportunities of the practicing high school English teacher. He also notes that for the teacher-investigator experimentation can be an inductive and developmental process of growth.

In a study conducted in Indiana public schools, Ted DeVries has found that English teachers make little or no use of major research findings in English. Concluding that the gap between theory and practice needs to be narrowed, he proposes in-service programs that include teacher research projects.

In their study of high school English departments, James Squire and Roger Applebee note that one measure of a strong department is a chairman who organizes in-service activities which have a direct effect on the classroom. The

chairman encourages the creative teacher to experiment with new procedures and content.

The thought and experience of outstanding educators points to the conclusion that a vital and practical way for teachers to gain in-service training, i.e., to grow and develop in skills, attitudes, and knowledge, is through conducting research studies in their own classrooms. Moving from this theoretical conclusion to practical application poses problems, however. Can busy teachers, untrained in the skills of research, actually become engaged in such sophisticated activity? Part of the answer is that the research they can do is action research, not basic research. The latter requires laboratory controls; the former, because of its social setting, does not and cannot. Basic research adds to man's sum total of knowledge; action research is a means for an individual teacher to seek guidance for the future — to find operational solutions for his own practical problems. Defined in this way, research is not beyond the scope of any teacher; rather, it is a more rigorous and organized way of testing and evaluating his teaching than intuition, common sense, or guessing. Furthermore, the fact that action research does not ordinarily contribute to the fund of educational knowledge does not detract from the potential of this technique in producing genuine in-service growth.

If action research is within the scope of any teacher, it may still be difficult for him to do it alone. He will probably need encouragement to begin, advice to continue, and expert assistance to overcome technical problems. One group of school leaders who would seem to be in a particularly good position to help teachers become classroom investigators would be subject area supervisors such as department chairmen or grade level chairmen. They should, of course, have the authority, autonomy, time, knowledge, and qualities of leadership to assume direction of an in-service research program. The supervisor should know enough about research to provide guidance in setting up classroom trials, devising tests, and evaluating data. Some small background in statistics and research design would be valuable. If a supervisor does not possess a minimum research capability, he should not initiate a program of research without providing consultation service. Although an outside consultant may prove very helpful, he will add cost to the program and will obviate another desirable goal — that of the supervisor working closely with

other teachers in a mutual program of personal and curriculum improvement. Serving as consultant himself gives him the opportunity to function continually in a supportive and encouraging role.

The experience of a group of English teachers engaged in an on-going program of classroom research at Oak Lawn Community High School, Oak Lawn, Illinois, demonstrates the feasibility of a research program as an in-service method. As chairman of the department, I provided the stimulus that enlisted over 40% of the English teachers to participate in a voluntary research program that is now over two years old. My principal way of stimulating teachers to become researchers was to engage in research myself, thereby providing models of practicality. In one study, for example, I taught two short stories in four different ways to four ninth-grade classes and four twelfth-grade classes. By testing student knowledge of the stories and questioning attitudes toward the teaching methods, I determined — tentatively, for myself — that such methods as small group discussion and dramatization produce learning equal to that achieved through traditional lecture-recitation and that students like such methods a great deal more.

In another study, I showed that I could work effectively with two student teachers at one time and that all participants in the experiment — students, student teachers, and teacher — gained in some observable way. Students profited from and enjoyed the increased teacher attention of small-group activity; the student teachers and teacher formed a team to plan and carry out a variety of learning activities, including an emphasis on small-group discussion and dramatization that was new to the student teachers; and the teacher was able to continue his own teaching while also serving as leader of an instructional team.

Although the conclusions of these studies, presented very sketchily here, might have some larger significance, they primarily benefit the teacher — me. Despite the orderly method of investigation, including tests, surveys, carefully recorded observations, interviews, and statistical measures, the conclusions of these isolated studies do not and cannot have great scientific certainty because the nature of classroom research precludes the possibility of adequately controlling the numerous variables. Nevertheless, pending further research and study, a classroom investigator can have confidence in

his findings simply because they represent the best information he has been able to obtain.

In these instances, apart from giving me direction, my studies demonstrated to other teachers that classroom research is not forbidding and esoteric. Moreover, they found in me someone who could help with problems of design, testing, and interpretation. Above all, they saw that they might learn something.

And learn they did. Ten teachers joined me in researching classroom problems. They have checked the value of repitition in teaching, tested methods of grading and commenting on themes, compared methods of teaching vocabulary, checked the efficacy of programs in study skills, tried ways to include student evaluation in determining grades, experimented with students as teachers, tested workshop techniques for teaching grammatical usage, and studied the effects of enhancing the self-concept of poor readers. In very few instances are the results of these research projects of interest to anyone else, but they have provided these teachers with some workable, though tentative, answers to some of their teaching problems. The teachers have learned to accept that negative and inconclusive findings also have meaning. And they have continued their research in order to refine their conclusions and to seek solutions for other problems.

Also evident in the work of these teachers is growth of another kind — growth emanating from the activity of research itself. The common effect generated by classroom research is the development or the reinforcement of an exploring and investigating attitude toward teaching. These teachers are evolving, willing to question their methods and beliefs and to change. The research program helped to organize their efforts and bring them to fruition. They identified problems, proposed solutions, tested those proposals, analyzed evidence, and formulated generalizations to guide their future teaching. Through the research program, the quest of these teachers to improve education has been given shape and substance.

In an evaluation discussion after the first year of researching, the teachers expressed agreement that their research experience was a significant influence on their development as teachers. One put it this way: "I think it was an excellent learning experience — the best thing I've done

since college." Another said: "I see now that a teacher's research is intended to help him in his own classroom. Though he doesn't contribute to basic research, he learns."

Another way in which the researching teachers have learned is through the reading of published research reports. Although they do not read a great deal — only twenty-seven references in the first year, much of it in article or pamphlet form — the reading has influenced and even initiated the projects of some teachers. Others find such reading dull, unappealing, and useless. Perhaps it is time for sophisticated researchers to try reaching a larger audience, one that could truly help narrow the gap between theory and practice. But they will have to write reports that are less arcane than many now in circulation. It is also prudent for supervisors, perhaps with the assistance of other supervisors and librarians, to have published research readily available and to provide explanation and interpretation whenever necessary.

Although as chairman I have been vitally involved as stimulator, consultant, and fellow researcher, subsequent developments show an increasing tendency for these teachers to research independently. Stimulation is still important, but it is more often provided now through group meetings in which the problems of research are discussed and the teachers motivate one another. Their reliance on me for technical assistance has decreased. In other words, they have learned to continue their learning without a teacher.

In our program I have indicated two essentials: one, growing teachers who are willing to examine their teaching; two, effective leadership — in this case, by the department chairman. In different situations, perhaps other status leaders may seize this opportunity to help teachers develop their talents. The following guidelines summarize the procedures department chairmen, or other leaders, may wish to follow in developing an in-service research program:

1. Survey teacher attitudes toward research and willingness to engage in research.
2. Demonstrate the feasibility of research by providing practical models of action research (his or others).
3. Stimulate the desire to research by showing that findings are useful in the classroom.

4. Meet frequently with individual teachers to assist in identifying problems and proposing solutions.
5. Disseminate related research reports and help teachers to understand them.
6. Meet regularly with the group of researching teachers so that they can exchange information and motivate one another (preferably in a relaxed, informal atmosphere).
7. Help teachers to design tests, evaluate evidence, and draw conclusions (or provide the services of someone who can).
8. Promote democratic and participatory methods in the discharge of responsibilities within the program.
9. Encourage an evaluation of the program that will lead to teacher-initiated modification and expansion.

Earlier it was asked if busy teachers have time for research. The same question can be asked about a supevisor, at whatever level he might be. If he has little time to give to his department or to the other teachers in his grade level because of his own teaching load, then a supervisor will certainly not be able to direct a research program. On the other hand, if he is charged with the quality of instruction in his school, or his department, and is given adequate time and resources to fulfill his duties, he may choose an in-service program as a means to promote teacher growth. As part of his general supervisory function, he can, in fact, implement a variety of in-service approaches. Thus a research program does not add another burden to a crowded professional life. It is just one way to accomplish what is already one of the supervisor's principal goals — to help teachers improve their teaching.

Above all else, the supervisor must possess the attitude that teacher education is important. He must believe that the desirable teacher is the growing teacher. And, of course, some teachers in the department must agree — or be stimulated to agree — that they can become better teachers as a result of doing research.

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PROJECT 214: A BETTER IDEA IN EDUCATION

R. J. Barth

In this article Mr. Barth discusses at length the Cooperative Teacher Education Program (CTEP) being conducted by the University of Illinois College of Education in cooperation with Community Districts #214, #25, and #59 located northwest of Chicago. He points out some of the advantages of a teacher education program such as CTEP as well as possible criticisms of it. This article would be good reading for anyone interested in teacher education especially as it relates to university-public school cooperative endeavors. Mr. Barth received his M.A. from the University of Illinois in the area of educational journalism and is currently a research assistant at the National Council of Teachers of English for the ERIC/RCS at Urbana-Champaign.

Over the past 15 years, millions of dollars have been spent on educational facilities, but little has been done to improve teacher education programs. What good are the facilities when the teachers can't teach? A federal commission on education recently concluded that Americans get better teachers than they deserve. The investment in each doctor and lawyer is at least twice that of each teacher. Doctors have internships and residency requirements, and yet most new teachers operate with no more than nine weeks of student teaching experience behind them. In the first few years, how much time and effort that could be spent with students is taken up in learning how to teach? How much can education actually improve wen teacher education preparation is insufficient? What is being done? The next step on the escalator to better education is improved teacher education programs like the *Cooperative Teacher Education Program,* familiarly known as Project 214.

Project 214 is a new teacher education program in Illinois. It is a joint effort on the part of secondary education faculty from the University of Illinois at Urbana, and Community Districts #214, #25 and #59 which include Arlington Heights, Mount Prospect, Elk Grove Village, Wheeling, Rolling

Meadows, and Buffalo Groves suburban communities northwest of Chicago. This area has long been noted for its progressive schools and its receptivity toward new and better educational ideas. Project 214 is the outcome of classic disenchantment among educators regarding present teacher education programs.

University and district faculty working together on another minor project agreed that something was wrong. "The dissatisfaction with the way things were going led me to involvement in this program," said Professor Roland Payette from the field of social studies education. "Many students in my regular college classes lacked motivation and a realistic approach to education. So I thought something had to be done." Professor Payette's criticism was echoed by other members of the staff, but his remarks went even further than most.

> There is an insensitivity in the traditional program. The candidates spend too much time in the university classroom thinking about concepts, but nothing real is done in terms of experience. In that view of teaching the candidate has things poured into his head. Well, it works for some people — those who memorize — but they aren't touched as human beings. And the thing I want to see in teaching education is a way to involve, to touch all people concerned.

Both district and university staff agreed that the traditional program was too narrow and too short to gain needed experience. According to Professor John Erickson (English Education), things began in earnest six years ago.

> In 1966 to '68 some of the faculty in Secondary Education did some experimental programs, one of which was in the Arlington Heights area — so we had a rather extensive and personal contact with the school district. Some of us were invited back later to be involved in North Central accreditation. As the years went by some of the faculty here grew more dissatisfied with the present, short, six-week student teaching program, and in light of criticism from students and teachers developed notions of what might be done about extending student teaching to a semester in length.

Serious discussions and negotiations began in late 1969 and continued thru 1970, taking a planning time of about one year. Negotiations included the development of objectives for

the new program. There was also a question of staff sharing between the university and the district which required careful attention. Project 214 was not intended as a radical departure from the previous teacher education programs. Educational programs develop slowly, adopting the pace of the turtle to that of the hare. In fact, this new program is quite pragmatic as the staff will tell you. The objectives include a longer period of student teaching, and more experience as a result. Professor Orrin Gould, from the area of science education, characterizes and explains the program in these terms:

> We don't think the project is static, but is an ongoing idea, and we just started in one place. We started where we did because in a huge institution like the University of Illinois you don't really create things so much as rework them within the existing framework. Our approach is to talk about objectives; if you deal with those who are more adventuresome you talk about summative objectives; that is, you do something and see what happened . . . . .
>
> Project 214 might be characterized as being of the latter. We try to put the candidate in a wide variety of situations. In the conventional program the teaching candidate is told what to do. But in 214 the decisions follow after the experiences as they are asked for. The candidate has to make his own decisions. In the traditional teacher education program somebody's given the candidate a hell of a lotta answers before he's got any questions that the answers fit. In contrast, we're giving the candidate involvement, and then after the experience intellectual constructs can be built. While there are a lot of things that need to be done, we feel it is far better than the conventional program.

The student teachers are learning to teach in the school rather than in the university classroom with six weeks of dabbling in real situations. The student teaching in CTEP lasts just over one semester or about twenty weeks. In addition to the student teaching, the candidates take their methods courses and related courses in education from district and university faculty. Normally such courses are taught by professors on campus. The related education courses are now taught by qualified district and university faculty who work together allowing a wide variety of input. Professor Ken Travers from the field of mathematics education remarks:

> Under the old model, I would sit here in my ivory tower and pontificate about what schooling should be, what teachers shouldn't do — and I'd do it to the candidates five days a week. Well, that's pretty hard for anybody to take. And when the candidates hit the schools they're told to forget all that crap they learned on campus — this is what it's really like. So a couple of things happen. The student teacher candidate rejects much of the little he might learn in college, and begins to see the college instructor as an antagonist. In CTEP I become a supporter of their efforts, and they view me as someone who really might be able to help them. The candidate isn't caught between two sets of experiences anymore — college vs. public school.

Thus, the teaching candidate learns to teach thru an examination of his own experience and not simply by theory. When questions arise the candidate can talk with any number of people, including district faculty, university faculty, and other candidates. In the traditional program there is usually only one cooperating faculty member for each teaching candidate. Such a practice exposes the candidate to a very limited range of teaching experience and leaves too much room for personality clashes and problems in evaluation. A cooperating teacher may become excessively fond of a candidate and overlook serious problems. While the cooperating teacher is being kind, the candidate is not learning from the experience, even if there were time to do so. Professor John Erickson thinks the improved interaction, experience, and communication has helped everyone. Not only are the candidates improving, but the university and district faculty are learning as well. He pointed out that instructional objectives have become more important because they are more immediate. The teacher zeros in on one question as a result of all the interaction: What am I doing as a teacher in this course? He related a fascinating story about what can happen when teachers take their objectives seriously.

> We asked a teacher in contemporary poetry what she was trying to do. She wanted to focus the students' attention on the possibility that poets writing today may perceive things differently than poets writing previously. She wanted to involve the students in a discussion of what a contemporary poetry course is about. She could have found herself a textbook on contemporary poetry, i.e. up to Dylan Thomas, could have assigned the poets in order, asked

some questions about each poem, and the course could have moved along in the ordinary way.

However, she did not and the class spent upward of a week or more just talking. They made choices about the kind of things they would read. They went over ground rules. And they made a very important decision. Since contemporary poetry is that poetry written by contemporaries, they themselves would write most of the poetry they would read and discuss. They also said that no one could participate in the discussion of contemporary poetry until they had written a poem.

This applied to the teacher as well. She wound up sitting out for a while because she just couldn't write a poem that she felt was good enough to turn into the class. She felt a little lonely because she was about the last one to turn in a poem. Finally her poem was turned in, at which time it was read and discussed by the class. And the students were happy to admit her to the class as a member. I think that the increased involvement possible in this program not only stimulates teaching experimentation, it also helps teachers live through the problems which arise when new ideas are tried and helps them to persevere when slipping back to old routines would be easier.

How are the candidates chosen to join the project? Professor Erickson says that as far as he knows they are not. If they meet the general requirements for student teaching, and if they apply for Project 214 they have every reason to believe they will be accepted, unless the quota is filled. The random nature of the group is important in terms of program results. For example, if the candidates were chosen on the basis of superior grade averages results would be suspect. From a professional perspective, at least, the candidates are representative of student teachers in that they are not specially selected for Project 214. Professor Erickson further points out:

Initially the candidates seemed a little more daring, a little more dissatisfied, a little different in personality, although I can't prove that. I think subsequent candidates are fairly typical of the student teaching candidate. They've been attracted to this program by what they have heard of it. We think the idea can be tried anywhere and it will work. Unlike some research in education, CTEP is not a project that works only under idealized or laboratory conditions.

Every candidate has a large input in making decisions about what he wants to do within the framework of what happens in schools. Does the candidate want to work in a junior high, or a high school? Who does he want to work with? As Orrin Gould points out:

> We're hoping to give the candidate a variety of experiences. One of the experiences includes small group teaching, or mini-teaching. In mini-teaching the candidate works with a small group of kids for four or five weeks. Beyond this every student teacher in science education, and some of the other areas, gets some experience at the elementary level. In addition, the candidate gets eight to ten weeks of intensive experience in one school in his major areas of preparation and gets to work with about four or five different district faculty in three or four different schools.

Observation is also an important and integral part of CTEP. Although most other teacher education programs include observation of teaching, it serves little purpose. The ideal observation period is designed to prepare the candidate for the actual student teaching experience. Professor Gould bluntly explains the difference between the traditional observation of teaching, and what ensues in this program.

> Most teacher education programs maintain they have observation; but most teacher observation programs are pointless because the candidates don't know what they're observing or why. We have a reason for observation in Project 214. It may be pragmatic, but it's there, and it's a reason. The candidate needs the observation of teaching experience to make decisions regarding where to teach, with whom, and at what grade level.

By contrast, in the conventional program observation doesn't aid decision making because the school, the cooperating teacher, and the grade level at which the candidate will work have been determined in advance. In the CTEP program, observation is not just for the candidate's benefit. The school also has the opportunity to choose the candidate. The candidate has to impress faculty members as well as the students he teaches in the district. This demand is bound to improve the candidate's attitude if he is serious about becoming a teacher. So the choice of cooperating teachers, the location, the grade level, and the subject taught

during the extended eight-to-ten-week session is mutual. The candidate submits a list of his choices after observation teaching. The project staff, which is composed of university and district faculty, then checks with the principal and department head of the particular school. There have not been any problems placing candidates in the schools of their choice so far. Sometimes a candidate makes poor choices, but even then he profits from what he learns about himself.

In the spring of 1971 the first group of fifty-five candidates went through the program. Since that time representatives of the various elements, e.g. the university faculty, district faculty, and the candidates have worked together developing the program. Communication extensively increased as more and more people in the district became experienced with what was going on. John Erickson is moderately optimistic about the whole thing adding:

> Those who know about the program favor it, at least participate in it, and have a good feeling about it. The board of education of the district has extended the program and made a public commitment to supporting this type of teacher education. The schools support the program implicitly by continuing it each year, although they are free to discontinue the program at any time.

Such an extension of the program by the board of education clearly confirms the remarks of those associated with CTEP. One is reminded of the cliche about actions speaking louder than rhetoric, especially in a time when there is so much rhetoric. But communication still flys on the wings of words. In this respect the program has largely been neglected. While the program appears to be successful — at least those closest report beneficial results — still too few people know of its existence. The staff has chosen the position that they are teachers and so broadcasting is left to chance.

Responses to the program vary, but generally in favor of the idea, as evidenced by the university faculty. Bob Snavely, a Ph.D. candidate in social studies education working with CTEP, thinks positively of the program in a detached way. He believes choice and change are not necessarily synonymous but the choices significantly effect the professional outlook of the candidate.

> I would say the candidates get three opportunities to make significant choices. One would be during observation,

they have to observe, but they can choose where. Another choice is in subject matter, grade level, and who they want to work with for the extended session. A third choice is that a candidate may not put all his effort into student teaching, but may save time for helping people in night school, or something like that.

Randy Axt, who completed the program as a candidate last semester, echoes similar sentiments by saying:

> Maybe because of the experiences, we learned better how to make choices. If we didn't learn more, at least we learned to make better choices, realistic choices, and in the traditional program you don't have this opportunity. In this program everyone is involved in the ways things are done.

Lynn Dickey, another student in CTEP, also thinks the program is worthwhile.

> At first I didn't know if I wanted to teach, or if I could. But now that I'm nearing the end of the whole thing it has kind of grown on me. I like teaching.

The longer experience apparently gave Lynn time to evaluate the profession realistically. Whether there is a consensus favoring the program can be left for a Gallup Poll Survey or a research team, but if success is measured in actions, attitude, and effort, the statistics will only confirm the value of Project 214.

One of the more interesting negative comments concerning CTEP is that some people think the program is too pragmatic. Professor Ben Cox, who is no longer directly associated with the program, said:

> The major criticism of the program that I've heard is that it's too pragmatic. It attempts to resolve all the classic problems of teacher education programs. This criticism is based on the fact that there is no set theoretical structure for the program to follow.

Professor Travers affirmed this criticism. On the positive side, however, there is no interference from procedure and red tape so the project doesn't suffer because of rigidity. Professor Travers didn't view the pragmatic approach to the program negatively.

> CTEP is very traditional in the sense that we're not trying to remake schooling. As a matter of fact we're immersing our people more directly in schooling so they're

more aware of what's going on than they were before.

While the university faculty were guardedly optimistic about CTEP, Dr. Don Ring, who is the district coordinator, was openly enthusiastic about it. When asked who benefits the most from CTEP, he replied quickly, "All people benefit." When asked how a skeptical person might be convinced of the value of the program, he said crisply, "I'd ask them to come and look at the program." He added that some other universities are now looking at the program with the idea of joining it, or starting their own version. (In the fall of 1972, Northern Illinois University became part of the program.)

Dr. Ring particularly likes the idea of staff, or resource sharing, as it is called. Rather than exchanging funds, the university and the district share resources. What this involves is an exchange of faculty in a sense. The university people are part of the district staff, and the district staff becomes part of the university staff as far as the program goes. Six persons in the district have assistant professor status with the university for example, and four others from the district are instructors. Dr. Ring comments:

> Let's take a methods course as an example of resource sharing. There might be a couple of us from the district and maybe two people from the university staff handling such a course. The university faculty can supply the candidates with some of the things we can't, and we can give some things they can't. The respective faculties are mutually influenced too. Sometimes the methods classes turn into curriculum development courses which directly benefit the district schools. This might happen formally or informally. We try to get as much input in the program as we can.

Ring feels that there are six definite advantages of CTEP that are lacking in the traditional program: (1) the longer duration of the program gives everyone a chance to learn; (2) resources are greater; (3) the candidate has a variety of locations and choices to make about teaching; (4) the experience is realistic; (5) there is less of an opportunity for personality clashes; (6) and the district benefits from the entire activity. Opinions concerning cost vary. He notes the program costs the district more, but that the money would have been spent anyway so its a question of priorities, adding that Project 214 is a priority. The program is now planned thru 1974, and other universities are joining the program.

Ken Travers and Orrin Gould do not necessarily agree that the program costs more. Gould cites increased instructional units without increased cost. An instructional unit is a bookkeeping term. The best way to define it is thru an example. Suppose that there are 25 people in a five-semester hour course. That course is generating 125 (25 times 5) instructional units. The instructional unit is used in computing teaching load. According to Gould, "Project 214 generates about 25% more instructional units than the conventional teacher education program for the same amount of money." Ken Travers adds, "I've seen figures which show it doesn't cost more to fund this program. If the program fails it wouldn't be for reasons of expense."

They further point out that whether they worked with the ordinary program or CTEP they would receive the same salary. So the University of Illinois is not paying more, but is getting more in return. More people are taught for the amount of investment.

The university does not now have a better alternative in secondary education. The College of Education has a ranking as one of the top six educational institutions in the United States, and that is something worth protecting. The program turns out more instructional units than the conventional program. It is also a vehicle for the Clinical Master's Degree which the university has talked about for years but never found a way of financing until now. Although much research needs to be done, Project 214 may be the basic model for future teacher education programs involving, as equal partners, universities and public schools.

CONFRONTING EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS WHERE THEY ARE: COOPERATIVE APPROACHES TO COMMUNITY EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS

Arden D. Grotelueschen
and
Dennis D. Gooler

The authors present a convincing case for the development of a cooperative relationship between Colleges of Education, State Departments of Education, and local community education units as a means of working toward the solution of local educational problems. The idea is an intriguing one and is ably described and defined. It will make good reading for anyone concerned with the development of alternative approaches to the attacking of the myriad of educational problems confronting local schools today. Dr. Grotelueschen is the Associate Dean for Research at the University of Illinois College of Education in Urbana-Champaign, and Mr. Gooler is currently the Director of the Curriculum Development Institute at Syracuse University.

Rationale

Local Problem Definition

Increasingly, realization of the uniqueness of each community and its educational problems results in disillusionment with the pat answer, the all-purpose transportable solution — particularly when local problems keep changing and the circumstances accompanying them are unstable. If it is true that one finds little variation in schools' operations, this may reflect limited knowledge of workable alternatives more than similarities in educational settings.

Local educational problems should be examined to discover the potentials and limitations of each community and to reveal attitudes of that community toward education questions. Since problems within a locality tend to be complex and interwoven, the search for solutions to educational problems should not disaggregate those problems from larger issues in the community.

Direct Involvement in Effecting Education

Colleges of education have most frequently contributed to local educational endeavors by training teachers and administrators. Teacher trainers have tended to be immersed in theory but have little practical knowledge. Furthermore, few colleges of education encourage or reward faculty who interact with local agencies concerning their educational problems. Colleges of education generally see their role as seeking generalizable truths about the process of education beyond the context of any particular setting.

Similarly, state departments of education spend relatively little time dealing with specific educational problems at a local level. State agencies tend to work with local agencies primarily on fiscal or regulatory matters.

On the other hand, local schools confront educational problems daily — often without capabilities for dealing with them — and seldom do they have the opportunity (or inclination) to obtain outside assistance with their problems.

All three agencies must adopt new roles. The college of education must more explicitly link the theorist and practitioner on the practitioner's grounds, while not entirely neglecting the search for generalizable truths. Colleges of education could engage directly in solving local educational problems more frequently than they do at present. The university contains vast expertise that could be applied to different aspects of local problems, but to be effective, it must be offered emphathetically and applied with full knowledge of the local situation. Similarly, state agencies could discharge their fiscal and regulatory responsibilities more adequately if they were more familiar with local problems. And local schools could take new initiatives in cooperative research and development efforts which would benefit themselves both directly and indirectly.

At stake here is local initiative and capability — the capacity of the local school to marshal and develop the resources needed to directly affect its educational programs and purposes. What is needed is a redistribution of each agency's efforts, as well as a redefinition of agency roles.

Studying the Process

Each discipline has established a body of knowledge with some degree of generalizability, as a result of systematic inquiry into phenomena of interest to the field. But educational problems seldom can be neatly classified into traditional disciplines; rather, educational problems tend to be cross-disciplinary.

Education has often been regarded as a subset of other fields. However, now it needs to be recognized as a unique discipline. To be sure, it contains elements of a vast number of other fields, but the whole of education is quite different than the sum of its eclectic parts. For example, school busing is a social, economic, and political problem. The challenges of classroom behavior, drug abuse, and the demands for relevance will not be adequately answered by any one academic discipline. Education is a unique blend of psychology, sociology, political science, anthropology, economics, and other disciplines and, as such, should be studied holistically.

In emphasizing the involvement of education scholars in the solution of specific local problems, the study of the general processes of education should not cease. A systematic study of education, however, might well begin with analyzing the identification and solution of specific educational problems. This particular responsibility of the colleges of education might be discharged by placing "educational scholars" and "scholarly practitioners" from the university in a local setting. In addition, colleges of education must learn to capitalize on the skills of local school people who are equally scholars.

A Plan

One approach to implementing the principles outlined above is to establish a network of Local Educational Units (LEU), whose characteristics, structure, and mode of operation are outlined below.

Characteristics of a Local Educational Unit

One of the most important characteristics of a LEU is that it is locally based. The unit must function at a local level, concerning itself with educational problems of that area. It

could be housed in local school district facilities or other suitable community buildings.

A LEU is cooperatively supported by three agencies: the local school district(s), the state education department, and a school of education. The principle of cooperative support, both financially and in terms of personnel, is an important one: sustained commitment to the endeavor is more likely to develop if each agency has fiscal and personnel investments. In a sense each agency then has an equal share in the processes and products of the LEU. Although outside financial assistance (e.g., federal) may eventually be sought, this assistance should complement, not replace, agency support.

Similarly, the administration of the LEU should be a cooperative venture. Historically in local school-university relationships, universities have tended to assume dominant roles. This must be avoided. Each agency of the LEU should have equal power in the decision-making — again, the principle of "ownership" applies.

Finally, the LEU is involved in four aspects of educational practice: *service*, in that the LEU renders direct service to the local situation; *development*, in that the LEU engages in program, curriculum, and materials development, as well as training various kinds and levels of education professionals and laymen; *research*, as the LEU attempts to document and analyze the processes of LEU operation, as well as to explore particular pedagogical or social questions; *evaluation*, as the LEU assists in the development and implementation of evaluation plans and methodologies.

The blend of these responsibilities cannot be determined for all places before the fact, but all four functions will be present to some degree in the work of all Local Educational Units. Similarly, not all LEU's will be organized in exactly the same way; the following section presents one possible structure for a LEU.

Structure of a Local Educational Unit

A description of the structure of a Local Educational Unit requires attention to the manner in which the unit is financed, the personnel, and the governance of the unit. A description of its function will be made in the next section, Modes of Operation. As has already been suggested, the unit receives initial financial support from the cooperating agencies and seeks outside funding when necessary. This section, then,

will briefly describe the personnel needed, as well as the relationships that should exist among these personnel.

The unit is managed by a director, who is primarily a broker matching resources with needs. He does not restrict his activities to the agencies primarily involved, but involves people and institutions as needs dictate. The director is largely a facilitator.

Critical members of the LEU are personnel from the local public and private school districts, such as teachers and administrators selected for their skills in dealing with people and their potential for doing development and evaluation work. These people have dual appointments to the unit and to the local schools. In addition, local personnel might receive adjunct positions with schools of education so that they might offer assistance to the university component. The major task of this group is to define the nature of local problems and to manage available resources to deal with those problems.

Both colleges of education and state agencies have members in the LEU to work directly on the solution of local problems. Frequently college of education staff and state agency personnel have different skills than local personnel. As suggested earlier, the "outside" personnel work as colleagues, not superiors to the local personnel.

In addition, the LEU has representatives from the community, people not normally considered education professionals. For example, a non-professional might work in the LEU by examining problems and solutions from a parental point of view. Parents not only serve as reactants, but also contribute as an integral part of the problem definition-solving team.

The exact representation of various groups of people will differ in each situation. The mix is important, however, as it will tend to bring complementary skills and outlooks together for a more balanced and comprehensive approach to local educational problem solving.

The governing body of the LEU also contains representatives from the various participating agencies — the college of education, the state department of education, and the local school district(s) — and from the community. The director of the LEU serves as an ex-officio member of the governing body and the chairman of the group is elected by the representative members.

The functions of this governing body are to establish policy for the LEU and to approve personnel and the unit's budget. It also is legally responsible for negotiating with outside agencies regarding various aspects of the LEU's operation.

Mode of Operation

In this section, the functions to be performed by the LEU will be described. In addition, some thoughts on assessment will be outlined.

Functions. Of primary concern is the service function. The LEU is in business primarily to assist local schools in defining and solving particular problems and in increasing local capability in problem solution. For example, the LEU might assist in defining the parameters of school accountability (if, of course, such were to be a local issue). This might be accomplished by asking a variety of people in the community what they think their school ought to be doing, and how vigorously they will demand stated levels of excellence. The LEU might then assist school personnel in deciding what data are needed to meet the demands for accountability.

The LEU might also assist a community in setting up neighborhood learning centers designed to facilitate life-long learning (again, only if this is perceived as a response to a local need). The LEU might also assist in collecting relevant materials and developing and evaluating programs for use in the learning centers.

Another kind of service might be more traditional in nature — the LEU might, for example, respond to expressed needs for a different social studies curriculum by helping teachers examine alternative curricula and by developing new materials.

A second function of the LEU is closely related to the service function. LEU's are heavily engaged in two kinds of locally-based development: program (including materials) and personnel.

Program development activities could range widely from the creation of a small specific product to teach a single concept in mathematics, to the redesign of an entire elementary school curriculum, to the initiation of an innovative program to involve parents and their children in some common learnings, to the development of an information system to relay school

information to the community. The point is that the LEU should have the capacity to lend developmental expertise to any problem defined by the community.

The LEU could also stimulate the continued professional growth of education personnel. The idea of in-service training might be replaced by more comprehensive continuing professional development. The LEU could also assist in developing new kinds of professionals. In addition, the LEU could be instrumental in exploring new sources of expertise that might assist the education process in the community. Leaders of the LEU must, however, remember that their chief function is to develop local capability for such personnel development; the intent of the LEU is not to replace the training base presently offered by colleges of education. Training may not be limited to educational professionals — it might also include the various lay publics.

A third function of the LEU is to provide local schools with assistance in evaluation. Pressures for evaluation are increasing, both from parents (consumers of education), and from governing and regulating agencies. Few school personnel have been trained in formal evaluation. This capability could be developed by the LEU and assistance provided in planning and conducting evaluations desired by the community or mandated from the government.

A fourth function the LEU might perform is a research function; that is, the LEU might provide the means to monitor and study the processes of educational development, evaluation, and service. The inductive generation of educational hypotheses, a by-product of such a pursuit, might become a central focus of inquiry. As programs develop, certain questions about aspects of those programs will be raised, questions which call for more detailed study. For example, a question concerning the most efficient way to teach students a certain concept in chemistry might call for a controlled study of the effects of several methods of teaching that concept. Or there may be a great deal of interest in why adults who engage in particular learning activities seem to behave in local politics differently than other people.

Seldom does a local district or community have an opportunity to analyze its goals and procedures. By carrying out the research function, local schools may be able to understand *why* things are, as well as *what* is. In addition, of

course, the careful monitoring of local processes and outcomes will eventuate in a reservoir of case studies which may then be analyzed for additions to our knowledge of general principles of education.

Again, the allocation of resources in each of these functions will differ from situation to situation. What is unique about the LEU, however, is that all four functions do exist in the same setting.

Assessment. How will the LEU itself be assessed? The criteria for evaluating the LEU will differ somewhat from situation to situation. Criteria will change. The standards used to judge performance will, in every situation, need to be explicated, and that is a difficult task. What various people will accept as indicators of what is really happening needs to be explored. Assessment of each LEU will require careful description of the operation and outcomes of the unit.

However, some general criteria might be stated concerning the assessment of any LEU. Those criteria include:

1. Does the LEU appear to be working in each functional area?
2. Does the work of the LEU in fact lead to better understanding of local educational problems and their possible solutions?
3. Do community officials regard the possible detrimental effects of having outsiders in the district worth while, considering the potential benefits of having the LEU?
4. Does the role of the agencies in a LEU affect the agencies themselves? For example, do policies, appointments, and rewards within the school of education change as a result of LEU involvement?
5. Do the styles, priorities, and judgmental criteria of people from the various agencies represented in a LEU mesh together into a common style, which becomes the LEU style?
6. Does the cooperation engendered through the LEU extend to other kinds of cooperative efforts among the agencies?

These general criteria, among many other more specific ones, might form the basis for evaluating the work of a LEU.

How these criteria might be assessed is not the intent of this paper, but that the evaluation must be done is undeniable. LEUs will need time to develop; premature evaluation would be unfortunate, but eventually, all concerned must have some evidence of the strengths and weaknesses of the LEU.

ACCOUNTABILITY: DEFINITIONS AND MODELS

Donald W. Smitley

Dr. Smitley presents a concise review of the concept of Accountability as it is being used in American education today. It makes important reading for everyone involved in education who either has been affected or expects to be affected by actions or decisions growing out of the accountability movement. Dr. Smitley is currently an Associate Professor of Educational Administration at Eastern Illinois University in Charleston, Illinois.

The Search for a Workable Definition of Accountability

Modern concepts of accountability in education probably came of age when Leon Lessinger identified what he terméd the three basic rights of democratic education. [1] The first of these rights assumed by Lessinger was that "each child has a right to be taught what he needs to know in order to take a productive and rewarding part of our society."[2] Probably no citizen or educator would refuse to accept this right as fundamental to our society. But, Lessinger has further clarified his definition of the child's right to learn by indicating that it includes a right of citizens to have objective proof that the child can use his skills and apply his knowledge in society.[3] While it is likely that few educators or citizens would disagree with this right, the practical problem of finding objective measures to prove that the right has been achieved is fraught with many potential difficulties.

The second basic right of democratic education, as identified by Lessinger, is the right of "the taxpayer and his elected representative . . . to know what educational results are produced by a given expenditure."[4] While many educators would accept this as an appropriate goal to strive for, they would appropriately recognize that it will take much professional and citizen effort and many financial resources to accomplish even an acceptable level of precision in comparing educational results with expenditures. Such reservations, however, cannot be used as excuses for refusing to attempt to measure educational accomplishments in relation to resources utilized.

The third basic right of democratic education assumed by Lessinger was the right of school personnel "to be able to draw on talent, enterprise, and technology from all sectors of the society instead of being restricted to educators' overburdened resources." [5] Although some educators would undoubtedly resist any invasion upon their professional privacy, it would be extremely difficult for them to justify a position in which they refused to accept assistance from the total society in making refinements in the complex task of education.

In further discussion of educational accountability, Lessinger referred to the need for "educational engineering," a process by which "we define exactly what we want, then bring together resources and technology in such a way as to assure those results." [6] He urged citizens and educators to "devote to the fashioning of educational programs at least as much imagination, skill, and discipline as we routinely apply to the building of a color TV set." [7] He established several criteria for a well-engineered educational program:

> It will require educational planners to specify, in measurable terms, what they are trying to accomplish. It will provide for an independent audit of results. It will allow taxpayers and their representatives to judge the educational payoff of a given appropriation. It will stimulate a continuing process of innovation, not merely a oneshot reform. It will call forth educational ideas, talent, and technology from all sectors of our society, not only from within a particular school system. It will allow schools to experiment with new programs at limited risk and adopt the best of them promptly. Above all it will guarantee results in what students can actually do.[8]

Since the term accountability was first applied to education, it has been viewed in many different, and often contrasting, ways by professional educators and citizens. Some have seen accountability as a panacea which will solve all of our educational problems, while others are convinced that it will eventually result in the crippling of the public schools. Some see educational accountability as a simple term while others see so many complexities in it that they cannot bring themselves to consider any of its potentially positive aspects. Some see it as dehumanizing the process of education, while others see it as providing maximum benefits for all children.

Many of these apparently contrasting viewpoints on educational accountability have developed because of a failure to obtain any agreement among citizens and professional educators on a workable definition of the term. Barrow defined accountability as the holding of professional educators responsible for what children learn.[9] Glass saw it as involving disclosure of the services being sold to the public, performance testing, and redress in the event of false disclosure or poor performance.[10] Some have viewed accountability as the extent to which management has the confidence of its employees as well as its customers.[11] Others have seen accountability as encompassing evaluation of the performance of an institution and responding to feedback from those who want it as well as those who avail themselves of its services.[12] Some undoubtedly have viewed educational accountability as an opportunity to guarantee results as a prerequisite to payment for services rendered or perhaps to make the amount of the payment correspond to the amount of learning which has occurred.

Perhaps as a reaction to those who have accepted the viewpoint that accountability means requiring educators to be paid in accordance with results of their services the concept of "joint accountability" was developed. This term encompasses three general principles:

> 1. The professional staff of a school is to be collectively responsible for knowing as much as it can (a) about the intellectual and personal-social development of the pupils in its charge and (b) about the conditions and educational services that may be facilitating or impeding the pupils' development.
>
> 2. The professional staff of a school is to be held collectively responsible for using this knowledge as best it can to maximize the development of its pupils toward certain clearly defined and agreed-upon pupil performance objectives.
>
> 3. The board of education has a corresponding responsibility to provide the means and technical assistance whereby the staff of each school can acquire, interpret, and use the information necessary for carrying out the two foregoing functions.[13]

The joint accountability concept involves the acceptance of two basic assumptions. First, it is assumed that no single individual may be logically held completely responsible for the

total performance of a child. In effect this assumption is accepted because of the many individuals who share some responsibility for the extent of the child's learning, e.g. teachers, educational specialists, administrators, parents, members of the board of education, representatives of community agencies, etc. Those who accept the joint accountability concept believe that attempts to force teachers to guarantee pupil performance are likely to be detrimental to the total educational welfare of the child.

The second assumption which is basic to the acceptance of the joint accountability concept is that citizens and their representatives are accountable for providing the necessary resources required to accomplish a specific level of pupil performance. Thus, the citizen as well as the educator is seen as having an important role in the accountability process. Rosenshine and McGaw apparently accept this viewpoint as a basis for what they term "co-operative'' accountability which involves citizens and educators alike.[14]

"Outcome" accountability has been used to describe accountability in terms of changes in student knowledge or behavior over a period of time.[15] Three problems are likely to be encountered with the acceptance of outcome accountability. First, different citizens and educators are likely to place different priorities on outcomes. Secondly, we presently lack valid and precise measuring instruments to determine the level of student outcomes with a high degree of confidence. Finally it is difficult, if not impossible, to determine the extent of progress that is appropriate for a particular class or student over a specified period of time.

"Transaction" accountability is a term which has been used to describe the assessment of the use of teaching methods and materials and student-teacher interactions in the classroom. Those who accept this concept of accountability believe that the teacher should be held accountable only for transactions which occur within his classroom. Unfortunately exclusive acceptance of this accountability concept is based upon an unvalidated assumption that certain teacher-pupil relationships together with the use of certain teaching materials and methods will lead to desirable outcomes.

At this point the reader may well ask "Which of the many definitions of accountability should I accept?" His answer to this question will be developed only after he gives careful professional consideration to each of the definitions

previously discussed and perhaps others which are currently being developed.

A workable definition of accountability in terms the local school district will come only as educators, citizens, and students engage actively and co-operatively in a search for such a definition. As Lieberman has so appropriately stated, "it probably makes more sense to think of degrees and kinds of accountability rather than to assume that accountability either does or does not characterize education . . . . No one should assume that any particular proposal represents the only (or perhaps even the most desirable) way to achieve accountability."[18] If citizens, educators, and students examine carefully each of many proposed definitions of accountability in a spirit of good-will, a commitment to intellectual rather than emotional approaches, an inexhaustive supply of patience, and a sincere desire to improve the educational programs in their schools, the search for a workable definition of accountability for their local schools and districts will be a worthwhile venture capable of producing positive results.

Contemporary Approaches to Accountability

At the present time, there are at least six different approaches to accountability in education. These approaches, referred to as models of accountability by some authors, are (1) the input-output approach, (2) the accreditation or recognition approach, (3) the planning programming budgeting systems (PPBS) approach, (4) the behavioral objectives approach, (5) the voucher system approach, and (6) the performance contracting approach.[19] One or more of these approaches have been incorporated in accountability programs that are being developed and evaluated in local school districts throughout the country. A review of each of these approaches to accountability should assist the school administrator in providing leadership to teachers, citizens, and students who are attempting to establish appropriate accountability programs in local school districts.

The input-output approach to accountability consists of attempts to relate educational resources utilized (inputs) to educational outcomes (outputs). This approach, sometimes referred to as cost-effectiveness analysis, deals with two types of inputs: monetary inputs which are converted into educators' salaries and instructional materials and equipment, and pupil inputs, representing the behaviors, skills, backgrounds,

and out-of school environment of pupils who enter an educational program.[20] The outputs dealt with in this model of accountability represent educational outcomes which are expressed in terms of pupil behaviors, skills, values, attitudes, etc., after pupils have completed an educational program. The program is then evaluated by determining the relationship between its inputs and outputs.

Those who favor the input-output approach to accountability see its use as eventually providing assistance to school personnel and citizens in determining whether expenditures made are worthwhile in terms of the results produced. Furthermore, they believe that the use of this accountability model will help to provide educators with the data required for them to determine which of several alternative kinds of inputs are most likely to the desired outputs at the least possible cost. Many proponents of the input-output approach agree that it will never be possible to quantify all inputs and outputs. They are convinced, however, that it is essential to make use of all pertinent quantifiable data that is available to improve educational decision making.

Opponents of the input-output approach to accountability frequently cite instances in which inputs and outputs have been confined to intellectual skills alone. They have also found examples of a failure of those using this approach to consider variations in pupil inputs. Their opposition to the input-output model is frequently based upon a belief that it is likely to lead to such serious educational consequences as teaching exclusively for the purpose of helping students pass examinations. Many of those who are opposed to the input-output approach do not believe that it will ever be possible to show significant cause and effect relationships between inputs and outputs.

The accreditation or recognition approach to accountability has been used extensively by national, regional, and state accrediting agencies. Through the use of self-study guides, evaluation checklists of criteria, and observation, local educators assisted by outside specialists make determinations of the successes and shortcomings of the programs, goals, and of schools. Undoubtedly the accreditation model has resulted in numerous improvements in school programs and operations through the efforts of local educators and professional consultants. Glass has succinctly summarized the major deficiencies of the accreditation model.

> . . . The current organizational structure of accreditation works against true disclosure of the operations of the schools because it is corrupted by its professional entanglements. From the public's point of view accreditation takes place behind closed doors between administrators, teachers and outside fellow professionals. Only in those rare instances where a school fails to receive certification does the community receive any pertinent data about the operation of school programs.[21]

One method which has been proposed to correct some of these deficiencies of the accreditation model has been the "independent educational accomplishment audit."[22] The I.E.A.A. focuses upon the educational accomplishments of a district as identified by an independent third party who is relatively free from influence by local educators or citizens. Another feature of the I.E.A.A. is that the auditor, who is specially trained for his position, reports his findings and recommendations in a public meeting.[23]

The planing programming budgeting system (PPBS) approach to educational accountability has a number of essential features This model involves approval of educational goals for a school district by the local board of education frequently after a citizens committee has carefully examined many alternatives and made appropriate recommendations. These goals are often stated as educational outcomes which are anticipated after students have completed their education in the district. They serve as guidelines to the professional staff which develops specific educational programs with short range objectives designed to lead toward the eventual accomplishment of the goals established for the district. A budget is developed for each of these programs which is evaluated on the basis of inputs in relation to anticipated outputs. Through the use of PPBS, it is anticipated that educators and citizens will eventually be able to make better decisions concerning the allocation of resources to attain program objectives and school district goals.

The PPBS model is viewed by some educators as a more comprehensive and sophisticated model of accountability than the input-output approach. One advantage of this model frequently mentioned by its proponents is that it involves representatives of the citizenry in decisions concerning the broad goals or purposes of the schools, thus forcing them to establish educational priorities, which in turn assists

them to better understand some of the educational consequences of decisions concerning the allocation of resources to education.

Many of those who are opposed to the PPBS approach believe that the additional costs which it involves are not justified in terms of its potential benefits. It is their conviction that many who urge the use of the PPBS model are interested mainly in potential monetary savings which will probably never offset the cost of developing a PPBS model. Other critics of this model have discussed the difficulty of obtaining complete and precise measures of inputs and outputs. The rebuttal frequently given to this criticism is that even though the PPBS model will never be perfect, it has potential for improving the quality of educational decision making.[24]

The behavioral objectives approach to accountability is based upon a belief that a child's behavior will change as a result of his learning. Those who support this accountability model are convinced that educational objectives can be made more clear if they specify precisely the kinds of behaviors desired as a result of student participation in educational programs. Once the desired behaviors are specified it is assumed that they will provide the bases for the development and evaluation of educational programs.[25]

The behavioral objectivists believe that their model offers potentiality for use with many of the other models of accountability since it seeks to improve the precision of educational measurement. Many of those who object to the use of this approach fear that the model has treated and will continue to deal only with those behaviors which are easily quantified, i.e., intellectual skills. They see little hope that the behavioral objectives model will eventually include behaviors dealing with attitudes, values, or self-concepts.

The voucher system approach to accountability places emphasis on consumer choice. Through the use of this model, parents receive an educational voucher which may be used to pay for educational services for their children at a school of their choice. Proponents of this model believe that its adoption will force public school educators to "compete in the marketplace." By breaking what they term the "educational monopoly" of the public schools, it is assumed that the personnel of all schools will have to be accountable to their clientele.

Those opposed to the voucher system model argue that its adoption will not necessarily guarantee accountability. The success of the voucher system is based upon an assumption that all citizens will have a choice of schools in which to enroll their children. This model also raises the question of the right of non-public school officials to refuse to admit any child who seeks to enter their schools. The adoption of the voucher system has also been criticized because it may eventually lead to the development of schools for children from different socio-economic classes of our society and therefore contribute further to the breakdown of communication between these classes.

The performance contracting approach to accountability in education consists of a process whereby an outside independent agency contracts with the board of education to provide some educational services to students. The performance contract frequently specifies the level of student performance desired with payments made to the agency on the basis of the degree of success attained by students in the program. Some contracts have clauses which specify that no payments will be made to the agency for students who do not attain some minimum level of performance.

The use of the performance contracting model is advocated by many who believe that it will assist school personnel to examine alternative educational programs without committing them to adopt the program on a permanent basis.[26] This model may also provide assistance to local educators who wish to compare results achieved through the utilization of different kinds and levels of inputs.[27]

The performance contracting model has been criticized because it shifts accountability from educators to private contractors.[28] This objection has much validity, especially if an entire school is turned over to contractors. As a possible answer to this objection some school district leaders are considering the development of internal performance contracting in which teachers in the district compete with each other to provide educational services to the board of education. Those who advocate this form of performance contracting believe that its use will eventually enable teachers to become "more professional" in the sense that their skills will determine to a great extent the level of their salaries.[29] Opponents of internal performance contracting believe that it is likely to

generate hostile competition between teachers which would be detrimental to the welfare of students.

As revealed in the foregoing discussion, each accountability approach or model has its own strengths and weaknesses. The task of selecting the most appropriate accountability program for a local school district will require a careful analysis of each of the models discussed and others which will undoubtedly be proposed in the future. Only as representative educators, citizens, and students carefully examine and study the consequences of each of these models will they be capable of selecting the most appropriate model or combination of models to include in their local district accountability program.

Footnotes

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27 Charles Blaschke, "Performance Contracting Costs, Management Reform, and John Q. Citizen," *Phi Delta Kappan,* LIII, no. 4 (December, 1971), p. 245.

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